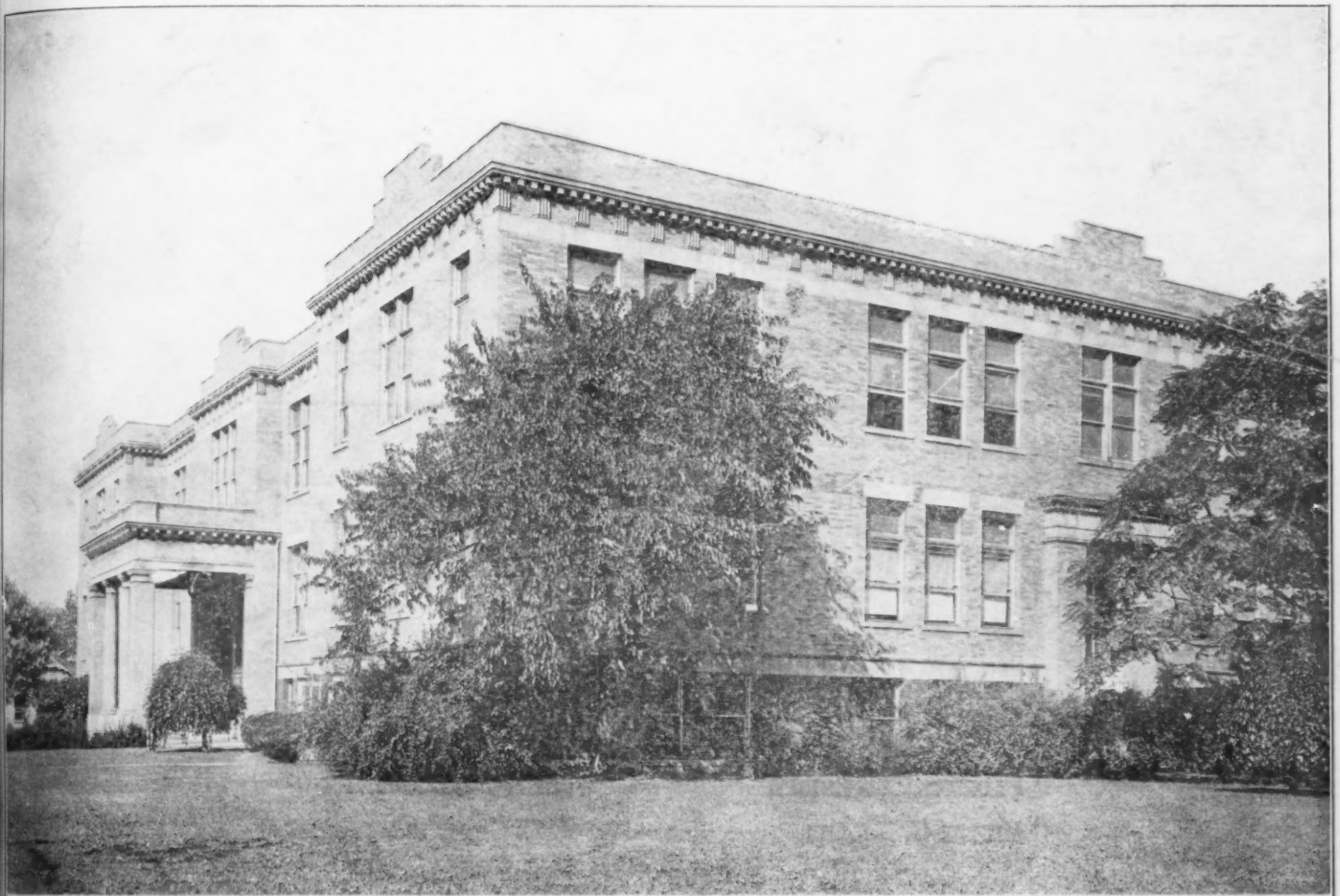


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THE JANUARY COVER

The opening article this month by Miss Parker features an alumnus of Indiana State Teachers College, Edward E. Hylton, under the title of "A Career in One High School." The front cover picture shows the school in which that career was achieved, Garfield High School in Terre Haute, which was opened in September, 1912.

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A Career In One High School

Thyrza C. Parker

This article by Miss Parker, a graduate of Indiana State Teachers College and a teacher in Garfield High School, Terre Haute, Indiana, is not intended as a eulogy of an Indiana State alumnus so much as a eulogy of a profession. There are thousands of teachers in America, unsung heroes, who are contributing their bit to make America great by serving faithfully in their classrooms, working intensively on the human resources in the communities where they are giving their lives to service. And, as Miss Parker says, "not all . . . have the unusual distinction and the colossal good fortune to be appreciated by those whom they have served." The philosophy which Miss Parker exhorts should be a part of every teacher's equipment.

In a later issue of *The Journal*, Superintendent William F. Loper, of Shelbyville, Indiana, Public Schools, will describe another of America's conservators of civilization under the title of "A Career in One Elementary School."

What is the distinctive mark of a college man or woman? Most educators have attempted to answer this question at various times. Perhaps the true answer can be arrived at by a careful evaluation of the careers of successful college men and women who have taken their places in their respective communities and have carried the skills, the ideals, the mental balance and poise of the college-trained individuals into the confusion of the social and economic problems that involve the welfare of thousands of human beings. In a day when the problems of human behavior have attained tremendous complexity, and when the most scrupulous care is needed to safeguard us against error, it is to these college-trained men and women, with their disciplined minds, that the world has turned.

In small communities throughout the country these men and women have put down roots into the soil and have made themselves indispensable in the community life. They have enriched the society of which they became a part in countless ways. They have brought their disciplined minds to bear upon local problems and have helped in their solution, pointing the way to the elimination of prejudices, to the danger of snap judgments, and to the pitfalls into which one may fall through a blind adherence to tradition. They have been outstanding exponents of independent thinking based on a thorough sifting of the evidence, refusing to become the dupes of invidious propaganda. They have kept before their communities the need of intellectual curiosities which open up avenues of recreative interests and make life richer.

At a recent home-coming celebration the alumni of Garfield High School presented its principal, Edward E. Hylton, with a framed tribute in appreciation of a man whose career has been associated with the institution since its founding. This tribute expresses, in part, their sense of the worth of the man whom they would honor. It says:

To Edward E. Hylton

As a tribute to a real friend and counselor, one who, as teacher, dean, and principal, has been identified with Garfield High School since the day it opened its doors in 1912 to the youth of Terre Haute, your students, alumni, and friends do, on this fourteenth day of November, 1941, present to you this testimonial of our

sincere respect, appreciation, and affection.

There is something particularly gratifying in contemplating, at close range, the factors governing the judgments our fellow beings form of us, although not all of those who make outstanding successes have the unusual distinction and the colossal good fortune to be appreciated by those whom they have served.

Mr. Hylton received his elementary education in the schools of Frankfort, Indiana. He later attended Frankfort Normal School and Valparaiso University. His first teaching was done in Clinton County, where he served the community during the first seven years of his apprenticeship, coming to Terre Haute in 1907. Here he attended Indiana State Normal School for two years, but it was not until 1923 that he received his Bachelor's degree. He taught for three years at Wiley High School, but at the opening of Garfield in 1912, he became one of the staff.

He has been associated with Garfield High School, either as teacher, dean, or principal, since the school opened its doors. The record of these



EDWARD E. HYLTON

years is a story of diversified activities. In the school year 1918-1919, during

(Continued on page 70)

Negro Contributions To Civilization

John W. Lyda

Mr. Lyda, who has Bachelor's and Master's degrees from Indiana State Teachers College, teaches in the Booker T. Washington School of Terre Haute. His short account of the Negro's contributions to culture is very revealing. The editor admits that "we" learned several things "we" did not know before.

Mr. Lyda is President of The Indiana Negro History Society, which publishes a bulletin from time to time. The bulletin is free to all members, and any person may become a member by communicating with Mr. Lyda.

The week beginning February 8, 1942, will be observed as Negro History Week throughout the nation. The purpose of this is to call attention to the little-known notable contributions of the Negro to the civilization of the world and our own country.

The contributions of the Arabs, the Chinese, the Hebrews, the Romans and many others to civilization are well known, but those of the Negro are not. Even many well-educated people know very little or nothing of the Negro's past and honestly believe that he has contributed nothing of much worth to civilization.

Perhaps this is due in a large measure to the fact that the authors of nearly all the history text and reference books used widely in our schools and colleges during the last half century have, in their treatment of this subject, either ignored the Negro's contributions to the history of the world and our own nation, or have made it appear that he has played no significant role in the drama of mankind.

Prior to the beginning of the present century, the field of Negro history had not proved very attractive to many scholars trained in the technique of scientific historical research. Consequently, reliable data as to the

Negro's past were not so easily accessible to the authors of history books written during the last few decades, as were those concerning the races and nations whose history they have treated adequately. For this neglect of the Negro's part in history we shall not attempt to determine who is to blame. However, during the last quarter century, many historical researches in the field of Negro history have been carried on by scholars in different parts of the world and our own country. The results of these researches are now available to all interested persons. Among the pioneers in this field may be mentioned Dr. Weiner, Dr. Justin Winsor, Dr. W. E. B. Dubois, Dr. Carter G. Woodson, and Dr. Charles Johnson.

According to these investigators, Negroes of Africa gave to the world the art of smelting iron and the forging of it into beautiful and useful articles, and the trial by a jury of his peers of a person accused of a crime. Can we overestimate the value of these contributions to our western civilization? Without the use of iron, industry, and transportation by land, by sea, and by air, would be at standstill. Can you imagine what our civil and other courts would be like without the trial by a jury of his peers of a person accused of a crime?

According to such eminent authorities as Dr. Weiner and Dr. Winsor, there is much historical evidence which indicates that the Negro came to tropical America long before Columbus was born. In this connection, it should be further stated that eminent scientists have found evidences which prove that civilized seafaring nations existed on the west coast of Africa long before the Teutons of western Europe had developed sufficiently in civilization to have ventured so far away from home as America.

Dr. Weiner cites the fact that

many Indian words, such as "canoe," "buckra," and "tobacco," are of African origin and must therefore have been borrowed from Africans. The fact that Negro skulls many centuries old have been found in caves of the Bahamas has led Dr. Winsor also to accept the conclusion of Dr. Weiner. Balboa also found a colony of Negroes on the Isthmus of Panama when he discovered the Pacific Ocean.

The Negro did not first come to what is now the United States in 1619, but much earlier as explorers and discoverers. Old manuscripts mention Alonzo Pietro, a Negro, as the pilot of the Nina, one of the three ships of Columbus. Negroes accompanied the explorers of Guatemala, Chili, Peru, and Venezuela. They were also with Balboa when he discovered the Pacific Ocean and also with Cortez when he conquered Mexico. Negro artisans assisted Menendez in the founding of St. Augustine, Florida, in 1565. The territory which now forms the states of Arizona and New Mexico was first explored by a party led by Estivanico, or Little Stephen, a Negro.

It was Negro labor that cleared the virgin forest, drained the swamps, and cultivated the fields and plantations of the South before the war between the states and thus built the economic kingdom of cotton, sugar cane, and tobacco in that section during that period.

In 1855, the Negro produced \$156,000,000 worth of agricultural products. He also did practically all the blacksmithing, wagon making and iron work of the South before the war between the states. He also manned its factories, machine shops, and mills, built its railroads, and even ran its trains while he was yet a slave. The Negro also contributed a vast amount of mechanical skill and even inventive genius. However, the number and kind of inventions which he perfected will never be known simply from the fact that inventions by slaves were patented in the names of the owners of the slaves.

There is much evidence for surmising that Eli Whitney, in the construc-

tion of his cotton gin in 1793, made use of devices which Negroes had perfected for separating the lint of cotton from the seed.

The Negro gave America humor, a much-needed antidote for this grim and hard age. Joel Chandler Harris used African folk tales as the basis for his "Uncle Remus Stories." The Negro spirituals are the only folk songs of America. Their weird beauty and soul-stirring power has made them popular not only in America but also throughout the world. While they express the heartaches of servitude and the longings of the slave for freedom, yet they contain no trace of bitterness or of a desire for revenge, but only the Christian sentiments of faith, hope, and love.

With the coming of freedom came new opportunities and new responsibilities for the Negro. Very wisely, he accepted these without wasting any time and effort trying to get even with those who had held him in bondage. Therefore, the disorder which has so often followed great revolutions did not materialize to any great extent following emancipation. The former master and former slave both accepted the new condition and new order and speedily set to work together to repair the ravage of the four years of the war between the states. The tragic blunders of the reconstruction era were largely those of white men who used the unsuspecting freedmen to carry out their own selfish purposes.

Even before emancipation the Negro had produced a number of great men and women. Among these may be mentioned Ira Aldridge, who toured Europe during the forties and fifties in a Shakespearean repertoire and was recognized as one of the greatest tragedians of his day. Benjamin Banneker, another Negro of that period, distinguished himself as a mathematician and astronomer. He of the nation of his day that he was so highly regarded by the leaders invited by Thomas Jefferson to assist in the laying out of the District of Columbia. Crispus Attucks, another Negro, was one of the first three pa-

triot to fall for the freedom of the colonies.

Since emancipation, the Negro has made great progress and has contributed far more to the well-being and development of the nation than he ever could have under the old order. He has given us Booker T. Washington, one of the greatest Americans born during the last century. George Washington Carver, of Tuskegee Institute, a Negro, has derived more than three hundred useful products from the sweet potato and the peanut. These he has not attempted to exploit for his own financial gain. Instead, he has insisted on giving them away free for the benefit of all mankind. The first surgeon to operate successfully on the human heart was a Negro, Dr. Dan H. Williams of Chicago.

That the Negro possesses inventive genius is attested by the fact that he has received patents on more than four thousand useful inventions. Among the most widely known of these are the shoe lasting machine, by Jan E. Matzelizier, and the almost universally used grease cup for the better lubrication of machinery, by Elijah McCoy.

The writings of Paul Lawrence Dunbar, Claude McKay, Charles W. Chestnut, Langston Hughes, W. E. B. DuBois, Walter White, Richard Wright, and many others, are distinct contributions to American literature.

Who has not heard and enjoyed the weird beauty of the Negro spirituals? Marian Anderson and Roland Hayes, both Negroes, are two of the world's greatest singers of the present.

As loyal and brave soldiers, the Negro has served his country in all the wars of the nation. Not one Negro soldier has ever been court-martialed for cowardice or disloyalty in time of war.

Furthermore it may be said of the Negro that by the sacredness with which he kept the trust reposed in him by those who sought to perpetuate slavery during the war between the states, he has given to loyalty in America a new meaning. It has

been said on good authority that not one Negro left at home to care for the defenseless and helpless during that struggle betrayed his trust.

Many more examples of the contributions of the Negro to our present civilization might be given, but space will not permit. These seem sufficient to warrant the assertion that the Negro played well his part in the history of mankind by his many notable contributions. Since our western civilization is the resultant of the contributions of all races, all should share alike in its blessings, and the contributions of all should be given attention in our history courses in all our schools and colleges, that the present and future citizens of all racial groups may the better know and appreciate the contributions of other racial groups to our present civilization and that they may the less likely become the active champions of racial hatred in their dealings with other racial groups.

ILLUSTRIOUS ALUMNI

WENDELL W. WRIGHT

Perhaps no student ever graduated from Indiana State Teachers College with a richer experience in campus activities than Mr. Wright. He was in practically everything, but was most conspicuous in debating. He graduated in 1916.

Mr. Wright taught in the high schools at Coalmont and Rockville, and then went to Arsenal Technical High School at Indianapolis, where he served five years. Since 1925, Mr. Wright has been in the School of Education at Indiana University, where he has the rank of Professor.

Although Mr. Wright received his Doctor's degree from Columbia University, he has attended the University of Chicago and the University of Colorado.

Professor Wright's chief contributions in educational literature have been in the field of elementary education, including a number of textbooks and workbooks.

A State Public School Speech Program

R. P. Kroggel

Mr. Kroggel is the State Director of Speech Education in the Department of Public Instruction of Missouri. This talk, presented as part of the program of the Speech and Reading Institute held during the week of July 14-19, 1941, on the campus of Indiana State Teachers College, discusses a program which Mr. Kroggel has built from its beginning. Missouri sets an example of close co-operation of The Department of Public Instruction with the schools of the state in the matter of building its speech program. Mr. Kroggel's work has gained national attention for himself and has encouraged the building of similar programs in other states.

In order that the purpose of this discussion may be understood, it is necessary to understand that speech is not to be considered a content subject. It is also necessary to understand that speech is the tool of communication which is utilized in practically every classroom situation as well as those situations occurring in extra-classroom activities. Just as music must be used in our schools as a tool of appreciation, so must speech be used and cultivated as a tool of communication. Too often, as administrators, we are inclined to think of speech in the light of a half-unit public speaking course, a course in dramatics, or the extra-classroom activities of speech. Nothing could be farther from the truth, insofar as real speech education is concerned. Speech constitutes one very important phase of each pupil's personality. Through guidance programs, programs in other areas of education, and classroom contact, we endeavor to build the personality of the child to best insure him a successful life. Speech con-

stitutes one of the keys to a successful life. For that reason, it is a basic part of the educational philosophy of speech that each child's speech must be taken care of in the public schools in order that the entire personality may be developed. Administrators who have served in their position for a number of years can point to many instances of scholastic, social, and economic failure, due to the lack of development of the speech phase of an individual's personality.

A summation of this speech philosophy could be made in the following statement: A public-school speech program, to serve the needs of all of its pupils, must necessarily meet the individual needs of each student. When we classify the speech needs of each pupil we find them normally to fall within three types, those of the child of inferior speech, the child of normal speech, and the child of talented speech. Also, we find that these three types pertain as much to the elementary school as they do to the high school or college. These three types must then form the bases for a thorough public-school speech program. For the child having inferior speech, there must be developed a program of speech correction and improvement. For the child of normal speech, there must be developed a program of improvement to enable him to reach his fullest capacities, insofar as the speech personality is concerned. For the child of talented speech, there must be developed a program of opportunity for training and progress in those speech talents in which he exhibits ability. If these three areas are thus administered, we will have each child in the public school developed to his fullest capacity in regard to this important part

of his personality. A public-school speech program has this obligation. It was with this conception that the Missouri program of speech education was inaugurated by Lloyd W. King, State Superintendent of Public Schools.

It was thought wise and justifiable to take the area most neglected and stimulate its promotion to gradually lead into the broad conception of speech education as stated in the afore-mentioned purposes. This area was that of the child inferior in speech. We were told that approximately eight to ten per cent of our elementary-school population was defective in speech. The work of some eighty-five organized clinics in Missouri showed that 8.4 per cent were defective. These clinics were first established not only to assist the child having defective or inferior speech but also to show a need for assistance in this much neglected area. Through the assistance of the State of Missouri and of the Department of Education, much direct assistance was rendered to over 11,000 elementary boys and girls having defective speech.

However, two practical difficulties lay in the path of the clinics in disposing of the obligation to take care of the child with inferior speech. First, there was a necessity, in a number of these cases previously mentioned, for individual and intimate care. This could not be done unless there was someone in the school system prepared to assume the responsibility. Second, there was a necessity for a continuous growth in speech from year to year in this child and, likewise, this could not be adequately met unless there was someone in the system who had this particular responsibility. The groundwork was laid through the state-directional clinics. Then came the necessity of interesting administrators in placing persons in school systems who had the direct responsibility of continuing that which was started. In order to broaden the horizon of speech, it was inferred that anyone placed in charge of this one class of children should likewise be prepared for and delegated the duty of integrating all of the speech work in that particular sys-

tem. In large city areas, one person naturally could not be expected to assume such enormous responsibilities. In small units, one person adequately prepared could take care of the entire program of integration. It was in this manner that the Missouri plan of speech supervision was devised.

The plan provided for a supervisor whose duties would vary to some extent, depending upon the size and needs of the particular school community, but whose responsibilities would essentially be the following: (1) They were to give individual and group care to the child having defective or inferior speech; (2) they were to conduct a general improvement program for those having normal speech; and (3) they were, if the school population was not too large, to teach some of the specialized areas in speech which would take care of the talented child. In this organization, the supervisor has the primary responsibility of the full development of the speech capacities of each child in his school system.

A discussion of a practical administrative organization of the speech supervisory plan is now in order, beginning with those school systems having a school population of less than six hundred. The corrective work in the first six grades is initiated with a testing program. From this initial test the schedule of individual cases needing intimate care will be made. Further tests for each of these pupils will enable the supervisor to determine remedial procedure. The clinical schedule for those having serious defects will be co-ordinated with their teachers and supervisors in order not to disrupt regular class work. Those who may be assisted in group sessions will be classified according to similarity of articulatory or voice defects at the various age levels. A schedule will likewise be worked out for these relatively homogeneous groups which will not conflict with the class work. This remedial work, both individual and group, constitutes approximately half of the supervisor's time in the first six grades.

It should be emphasized that in the correction of such defects, the first

six grades offer the most fertile field for remedial work. Voice and speech habits are more amenable to change at this time than later in a child's school career.

The general improvement program, aimed particularly at the child with normal speech whose speech personality can be further developed, is organized on the following four-fold basis:

First, through teachers' meetings, in order that the plan and purpose of an improvement program may be readily understood by the elementary teachers, it is necessary to meet these teachers in groups; this will enable the supervisor to present a clearly outlined program of what she intends to do in this field. The teacher must feel that the responsibility of carrying on an improvement program will depend in the final analysis upon her co-operation and the extent to which she will follow up such work in her regular classroom teaching. The majority of our elementary teachers have not had courses in speech improvement at the elementary-school level. Thus, the supervisor must impress upon these teachers the fact that the improvement program is one of training in service. The supervisor must likewise make it known that her work is that of an assistant to the teachers.

During this teachers' meeting the supervisor should work with each teacher in scheduling some demonstration teaching in each classroom. After the schedule has been completed the supervisor will then enter each classroom and teach for a short period, thus giving the regular classroom teacher an opportunity to observe the improvement work. The supervisor will then provide materials to follow up this particular demonstration.

Second, the improvement program utilizes demonstration teaching. It has been found by the supervisors conducting the work in Missouri that about thirty minutes a week can be utilized profitably in demonstration teaching. If this can be followed by a ten- or fifteen-minute daily speech period by the teacher, under the supervision of the speech supervisor, it

will not be long until the increase in supervisory guidance will be noted with a corresponding decrease in the actual teaching done by the supervisor.

Contacts with the pre-school child can be effectively used, providing that too much time is not spent in this work. In a few areas of Missouri the supervisor has conducted a speech testing program in connection with the health roundup and examination held prior to the child's entrance into school. Where kindergartens are well established there is no value in conducting such a testing program, since the kindergarten teacher, with the supervisor, has already discovered the child's difficulties.

Conferences also have an important part in the improvement program. The supervisor will arrange conferences with the teachers to discuss with them the progress of the improvement program. She will furnish added materials to the teachers according to the needs as the classroom teacher sees them. These scheduled conferences will permit a discussion of the correction work, in addition to the improvement program.

One of the most important phases of the supervisor's work is that of contact with parents. A time set aside for office conferences in which parents are invited to confer with the supervisor has made for more effective work in a number of cases. Supervisors should not lose sight of the fact that they should feel themselves welcome in the homes of the children with whom they work. It is well known that in many instances conditions are found in the child's home which cause much of his speech maladjustment.

A culminating activity which does much to serve public relation purposes, in addition to forwarding the speech education program, is that of a festival of classroom activities held at the close of the school year. The teachers in the various grades are asked to present at a meeting of patrons and friends of the schools a short portion of their actual classroom procedure in speech improvement. Each teacher takes a particular phase of this work and without rehearsal,

other than organization, presents the work at such a meeting.

Eventually this elementary improvement program will reach its final step, consisting largely of supervised teaching. When this step has been reached the classroom teacher who has been trained by the supervisor through the teachers' meetings, conferences, and demonstration teaching, will be carrying on her own program of speech improvement. The supervisor's part will be largely advisory. Connected with this advisory function will be the continual furnishing of material to meet the needs of each classroom.

Let us now observe the junior-high-school level. It is very important at this level that the work initiated in the first six grades be continued in order that the continuity of the program, as meeting individual needs, shall not be lost. If the preceding program of the first six grades has been followed as indicated previously, each child will have developed his voice and speech personality up to the point of pre-adolescence. In addition, those who have had speech defects will have improved or, in a great number of cases, will have had these defects entirely eliminated.

It is now time to develop further the voice and speech personality by taking advantage of the situations occurring during this period of pre-adolescence. Unless a program is continued at the junior-high-school level, much of the progress which has been made in the earlier elementary years may be lost.

Speech classes are held twice a week, alternating in some cases with a general music program. These classes, in order to serve the purpose of an improvement program, must present a balanced course giving opportunity for speech improvement through drill, audience situations, group activities, and public performance. This does not mean that individual needs of the pupil having defective speech are neglected at this level. The work which has been started to remedy the defects in the earlier elementary period will be continued by the supervisor if necessary.

This brings us to the high-school

level. In the average school having 600 pupils or less, a one-unit course of Fundamentals of Speech will be taught by the supervisor. If time permits, a half-unit course in dramatics for those desiring this work will likewise be taught. The remainder of the high-school pupils should have their speech needs taken care of through the oral activities of the English classes, assisted by the speech supervisor. In this manner a continuity of speech improvement for this group will be maintained.

In order to clarify the above high-school program, it may be well to make the following statements:

The Fundamentals-of-Speech class should probably have two divisions. The students whose growth in speech has been markedly slow should constitute one group. This should not be a large group by the time the child reaches high school after having had his speech personality developed through the supervisory program at the elementary and junior-high-school levels.

The second group which should be given opportunity through this course is that of the talented child. This group will be given a much more advanced course than the original group mentioned. Opportunity for public appearance through speech bureaus, assemblies, and similar activities, will form the nucleus for much of his high-school speech work. In many cases it may be in debate, discussion, or other areas which lend themselves to platform speaking. His area of interest will not be the same as a person taking the half-unit dramatics course.

By utilizing the high-school program as is outlined, each pupil will have completed the work which most closely approximates his speech needs: the child inferior in speech, by further correction, or the elementary fundamental course; the normal child in speech, through the oral activities of the English classroom; and the talented child of speech, through the advanced fundamentals course, or the specialized course in dramatics.

This general plan of a public-school speech program varies in our larger city areas, since the distribu-

tion of duties is affected by the size of the speech staff. It is impossible for one supervisor in an urban school of considerable size to carry on all of the work which has been indicated in the previous discussion. The ideal situation is to have a sufficient personnel to carry on the elementary correction and improvement program in the first six grades of each school. The work of all people engaged in this area should be co-ordinated through staff meetings. It is possible to have one supervisor take care of several junior high schools. Likewise, there is the necessity of sufficient personnel in the high school to teach such courses as have been indicated. However, the key to the successful program in this larger area is the close collaboration of all of those engaged in the work, whether at the elementary, junior-high, or senior-high-school level. In order to secure this collaboration, each teacher or supervisor engaged in the work must recognize the fact that his part is only one phase of a larger plan.

The relation of the school administration to a public-school speech program is significant as a basis for ultimate success. The first factor in which the superintendent or principal is interested is a justification of a speech program throughout the entire system from an educational viewpoint. In a previous discussion in this report, the fact was stated that speech is a tool of communication and an essential factor of personality. Since anything which contributes to the full development of the child's personality is a function of the public-school speech program, it necessarily becomes a fundamental part of the entire school program. It is from this educational viewpoint that the speech program must be inaugurated. Too often professional speech teachers have considered their particular specialized area in speech education to be the only important field, with only a comparatively few pupils in school being served. This broader philosophy of speech cannot condone such a viewpoint.

The administrator recognizes that although the ideal in speech educa-

(Continued on page 65)

An Evaluation Of The Centralizing Tendencies In School Administration In Indiana Since 1900

Paul Lemmon

In this article, Mr. Lemmon, Principal of Hawcreek Township High School, Hope, Indiana, makes a pragmatic defense of the centralizing tendencies in public education in Indiana during the present century. His statements are convincing.

Mr. Lemmon received both his Bachelor's and Master's degrees at Indiana State Teachers College.

I. THEORETICAL GROUNDS FOR STATE CONTROL

The justification of free public education in Indiana was settled in the Constitution of 1816 which declared:

Knowledge and learning generally diffused throughout a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government, and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country being highly conducive to this end . . . it shall be the duty of the General Assembly, as soon as condition will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular graduation from township schools to a state university, wherein tuition shall be gratis, and equally open to all.¹ This sentiment was reaffirmed in the Constitution of 1851.

The interpretation which the Supreme Court has given to these clauses is well shown in the following words:

Common schools, as a whole, are made a state institution—a system co-extensive with the state, embracing within it every citizen, every foot of territory and all taxable property of the state.²

¹Constitution, 1816, Article IX, Sections 1 and 2.

²City of Lafayette V. Jenners, 10 Indiana Reports, 76-77.

Today the principle that the wealth of the state must educate the children of the state is a firmly established principle. It is a settled conviction that the provision for a system of free public education is one of the important duties of the state. Today most people firmly believe that the principle of universal educational opportunity is basic and fundamental in a democratic government. Everyone also is convinced that educational opportunity should be equal to all. Cubberley states this principle in the following words:

We of today conceive of free public education as the birthright of the child on one hand, and an exercise of the state's inherent right to self-preservation on the other. The children of today are the voters of tomorrow, and to prepare them well for their duties is the opportunity of the state. Each new generation of voters, so prepared, should in turn stand for an enlarged conception as to the needs for, purpose, scope, and function of public education.³

Unless the schools are supported adequately by some great grant or endowment, it becomes the state's duty to provide sufficient means to establish and maintain them. In Indiana there is a common-school fund, but in 1933 the revenues used for the schools amounted to two and one half times the mount of the permanent school fund. In other words, the state spends on the common schools about twenty-six times the amount of the revenue derived from the common-

³Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public School Administration*, (Houghton Mifflin Company, 1922), p. 12.

school fund.⁴ In face of this fact, the state of Indiana in 1933 showed itself willing to support public education by a state-wide tax.

It has become a fundamental principle in political science that when representative governments authorize public expenditures, an accounting must be made to show that the money has been expended in the way and for the purposes intended. In the matter of the common schools, this requires not merely the balancing of accounts to prevent misapplication of revenue, but also, and much more important, a complete system of supervision of all the work and all the affairs of the schools.⁵ How else can the state know whether or not its vast expenditure of about \$42,000,000 annually, is contributing to the highest good of the people? Herein alone, it seems, the state has ample grounds to control common-school education.

II. Benefits of Centralization

There seems to be no way in which criteria can be set up and deductive methods used to show a justification of central control of public education in Indiana in the results that have been attained under it. In the present evaluation the inductive method will be applied in an effort to see if a justification of the tendencies which are apparent in school administration in Indiana since 1900 may be found. It is admitted, of course, that not all the advancement made in education during the twentieth century can be attributed to centralization of control alone. Other forces have also had their contributing influence.

Richmond points out that the trend toward centralization can be justified "in so far as it provides the school districts of the state with resources and supervision which they are not able to provide for themselves."⁶ Then

⁴F. A. Cotton, *Education In Indiana*, p. 445.

⁵William A. Rawles, *Centralizing Tendencies in the Administration of Indiana*, (The Columbia University Press, 1905), p. 154.

⁶James H. Richmond, "Centralization of Educational Administration," *Elementary School Journal*, 52:726-8, (June, 1932).

can the tendency toward centralization in Indiana be justified on the basis of this argument? The writer believes it can.

The chief claim of the free public school is that it offers equal educational opportunity to all. Equal educational opportunity carries with it a great many serious and vital implications. It means equal length of term, equal material equipment, equal supervision, equal teaching ability, equal facilities for the grades, equal high-school privileges, and equal advantages and privileges in every respect.

What was the situation in Indiana in the early part of the present century? The length of term varied from six to ten months. Material equipment varied from the most ancient, most poorly constructed, most uncomfortable single-room schoolhouse in the remotest district, to the best-constructed, most completely furnished, most comfortable modern structure, in the most accessible location. Supervision varied from a single visitation of the county superintendent to the closest supervision and sympathetic aid of the expert supervisor. Teaching ability varied from absolute incompetency to the highest and most skilled professional efficiency. Facilities in the grades varied from the district school, with one teacher in a single room with from five to eight grades teaching twenty-five to thirty-five classes, to the town, city, and consolidated schools in which each grade was provided with a teacher.⁷

It is readily admitted that many of these inequalities still exist in the schools of Indiana. But it is the contention of this evaluation that the tendency toward state control has done much to relieve many of the inequalities that existed in the early years of the present century. As the time goes by, many of the existing inequalities will be removed under state control.

The state's control over local schools makes it possible at the present to guarantee every child at least a minimum of educational opportunity.

⁷Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1908, p. 337.

The state now has complete control over the minimum standards for teachers and teacher-training, the certification of teachers, the length of the term, courses of study, textbooks, salaries of teachers, and the retirement of teachers. Instead of permitting truancy, the state has established an attendance staff to compel children to submit to its educational program. Every child, even in the remotest part of the state, is assured that no Indiana school which he may attend can be below the minimum standards set by the state.

The consolidation law is a fine example of what has been accomplished through state control. In 1900 there were one hundred eight schools in Indiana with fewer than five pupils in average daily attendance.⁸ Now it is impossible, with certain exceptions, for a school to be maintained with fewer than twelve pupils in average daily attendance. In 1902 there were 10,005 schoolhouses of all kinds in Indiana, four of which were of log construction.⁹ In 1935 there were only 5,517 schoolhouses in Indiana.¹⁰ The work of consolidation has gone on at a rapid rate. As late as 1935, there were 61 schools discontinued. In the same year, 168 schools in Indiana which refused classification, and most of these were rural schools. These figures reveal that there is still need for consolidation, but the need is not so great now as at the beginning of the century.

No state has made greater progress in centralization of its rural elementary schools than Indiana.¹¹ Centralization in this state has long since passed the experimental stage. It is known that consolidation permits better grading, insures the enrollment of the larger percentage of the pupils, and a better attendance. It also lengthens the school term, secures a more efficient teaching force, and holds the

⁸Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1904, p. 339.

⁹Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1902, p. 293.

¹⁰"Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction," *Indiana Yearbook*, 1935, p. 529.

¹¹Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1908, p. 338.

efficient teaching force longer. It insures better equipment, better school buildings, and lower per-capita costs.

A consideration of the results accomplished by the compulsory attendance law leads to the conclusion that much has been accomplished in this area by state control. In 1901 the attendance was 76 per cent of the enrollment; in 1954 it was almost 90 per cent. In 1850, 17.5 per cent of the people over twenty years of age were illiterate; in 1890 but six and three-tenths per cent of all classes over ten years of age were classed as illiterates; in 1950 but one and seven-tenths per cent of all classes over ten years of age were illiterate. Nothing more clearly demonstrates the increased efficiency of the system.

In the matter of certification of teachers does it require any argument to prove that our present centralized system of determining the qualification of teachers is superior to the half-county and half-state system in force forty years ago? In case additional argument is necessary, the following points in favor of the state's being the exclusive agency for issuing licenses should be noted:

1. It insures the same standard in all the counties.
2. It equalizes wages and elevates the school work in the poorer sections of the state.
3. It removes the possibility of using personal influence to secure a certificate.
4. It saves teachers the time, expense, and annoyance of going from one part of the state to another to take examinations.
5. It eliminates the lower grade of licenses.
6. It eliminates examinations as the basis for issuing teaching licenses.
7. It requires minimum credentials for state approved teacher-training courses.
8. It makes teaching a profession rather than a stepping stone to some other profession.¹²

A consideration of the results of
(Continued on page 70)

¹²Malan and Robinson, *Indiana School Law*, (C. E. Pauley & Co. 1935), p. 245.

The Integrative Functions Of Speech

Elwood Murray

Dr. Murray, Chairman of the Department of Speech and Dramatic Arts of the University of Denver, has probably made the most original and most significant contribution to thinking in the field of general speech education since the early contribution of Walter Dill Scott. By discussing the personality aspects important in the public-speaking situation, he has focused attention upon the important aspects of personal relations in speech. His original major contribution included in his book, *The Speech Personality*, has been extended and broadened by articles and talks such as this one. This talk was presented as a part of the program of the annual Speech and Reading Institute held at Indiana State Teachers College during the week of July 14-19, 1941.

"Integration," as used in this paper, includes three very different but closely related aspects. "Cultural integration" refers to the interrelating of past and present ideas and facts; "social integration" refers to co-operation and unity among men; "personal integration" refers to unity and serenity within the person, along with adequate orientation by him.

I. The Place of Speech in a Productive Social and Cultural Process

Speech is adequate to the extent that it results in co-operation of individuals around suitable ideas and activities. The purpose of speech is to help men to work together wisely; its essential functions are its integrative and evaluative functions.

Productive outcomes usually depend upon men's making agreements, improving them, and fulfilling them. Speech enters into this process at all points—to connect and relate ideas to facts and reality, to explain and

clarify, to predict and to evaluate outcomes. Writing serves to make agreements, judgments, and information more definite, binding, and permanent. Accompanying these activities is an increase in the warmth and cordiality of relations among the persons concerned.

Thus, in most creative endeavors, such as the construction of a house, the invention of a plastic, the carrying on of a prosperous industry, the establishment of a home, the creation and production of a play, the teaching of a class, numerous speech acts help persons to evaluate ideas, procedures, and materials, and to put them together in suitable combinations in plans and actions.

The adjustments which occur in the solving of human problems and the improvement of human relationships are analogous to the changes which occur in a chemical reaction when a new substance is formed, or the co-ordinated relationships which occur in the different organs of the human body when there is health and growth, or in the growth of a plant as it relates itself to its soil and climate.

The sort of things which men invent, the nature of the creations which they bring about, is influenced by their needs and the available resources and technologies, along with information, ideas, and values coming out of those experiences represented by their cultural heritages. Speech and writing permit the results of past experiences to be formulated and transmitted from generation to generation, and to be made available as required. Evaluating, or the ability to predict outcomes, rests upon having proper perspectives of events in the past and an awareness

of the scope and nature of present events.

Great enterprises thus are made possible because of linguistic behavior, the co-operation of the past with the present, with certain men figuratively standing on the shoulders of other men. Productive outcomes almost always, have incorporated in them the results of speech. Alfred Korzybski has designated this behavior as "time-binding."

Speech may, and frequently does, function to reverse the process of growth and productivity in the culture and social process. Practically all human failures—crimes, divorces, depressions, and wars—are preceded and accompanied by countless speech acts which are disintegrative both personally and socially, and which manifest faulty evaluations.

Those trends toward disintegration, those tendencies toward force, violence, and destruction, those attitudes of cruelty and selfishness which now predominate in many aspects of our society, must be ameliorated if democracy and civilization as we conceive of them are to survive. And speech will be indispensable in this process.

Speakers who can serve to heal these splits in our cultures and who act integratively but critically in the great majority of their social contacts, represent the chief aim of speech education. All teachers, as well as speech teachers, have a responsibility for the achievement of this aim—at whatever points they attempt to improve the student, directly or indirectly, in matters relating to his speech behavior.

II. Speech Development Parallels Personality Development

The social-integrator-speaker must himself be a unified person. Habitually to bring persons into proper agreement and wise action requires the utmost of tact, caution, and maturity. To connect and adapt to the others in a situation is impossible for the egocentric and infantile. Objectivity for speech, the ability to take into consideration the other person and at the same time keep the focus of attention on the speech content, does not occur when the speaker is shot through with self-reference or

self-consciousness, or other self-centered and immature behavior. Speakers with egotism, "shrinking-violet," "clinging-vine," "go-getter," or "wallflower" characteristics are not socially integrative. The speaker who is unifying in his social contacts, whose influence is always such as to cause men to want to co-operate and work together instead of being belligerent, competitive, ornery, unreliable or irresponsible, must himself be mature and fairly free from egocentricity.

Speech development may be illustrated in the expanding speech and social contacts of the child. From the ages of three to about seven, his speech, and hence his relationships, are quite normally and properly egocentric. His speech displays the usual self-reference and undelayed reflex responses of that small world of the child in which he is the principal actor. His speech is impulsive; its content does not reveal adequate evaluation from the standpoint of the adult; it is especially characterized by self-consciousness, timidity, mental blocking, exhibitionism; it is a poor medium for his relationships with other children; it results in more or less strain and quarreling.

At the age of about seven or eight years, the child's speech begins to break through the egocentricity controls and to function with an increased objectivity and integrativeness. Because he is gradually more able to take into consideration the attitudes of other persons in his environment, his social contacts and the warmth of these contacts progressively increase. At the same time, he becomes slightly less impulsive; and as his experience and knowledge widen, his evaluation becomes more adequate. *Speech-personality development* refers to this progressive increase in the number and warmth of social contacts as affected by his speech media and the improvement in evaluations which the content of his speech represents.

This improvement should continue through life, and with appropriate training will result in that mature social-integrator-speaker mentioned above. However, there appear four chief hindrances to such development

which concern both parents and teachers:

(1) Too much harshness, discipline, and direct or indirect domination of the thinking of the child. The outcomes of this sort of environment are "wallflower" or "shrinking-violet" tendencies in speaking.

(2) Too much solicitude, softness, or pampering. The outcome of this is a speaker with "clinging-vine" or "star," or with demanding, unco-operative, and domineering tendencies.

(3) Neglect of the child, and particularly neglect of his speech. In this case, his ability and interest in speech and his social contacts will be much retarded.

(4) Various combinations of the above influences. Often all of these influences bear upon the same child in one manner or other, at one time or another, throughout his most formative years.

The relationships to personality are evident in many of the vocal and bodily aspects of speech except where there are anatomical or physiological defects. The speaker's voice very frequently reflects the adjustments and orientations of the speaker. The adjustments directly affect the breathing and resonance, the control and the equilibrium of the organs used in speech. Too high pitch, too little audibility, too great audibility, monotony, hardness, too rapid rate, too slow rate, and other voice deficiencies, reflect the lack of objectivity and development of the person. Likewise, the posture movement, and gestures may be inadequate, inhibited, strained, indirect in their effect, and otherwise inadequate.

Lack of poise, or stage fright, is also a reflection of the development of the person. One reason that even many trained and experienced speakers feel acutely uncomfortable upon facing an audience is an outgrowth of past experiences of which their present attitudes are the result. Instead of the superficial manner in which stage fright is usually regarded, teachers should recognize such behavior as an illuminating indicator of the child's social functioning.

Training in overcoming these manifestations of speech without reference to the underlying personality causes which are contributing to them does not, of course, effect more

than a superficial improvement—improvement which does not sufficiently carry over outside of the classroom into everyday contacts.

The teacher who would guide the speech development of children must, therefore, be able to guide their personality development. At the same time, that teacher who most effectively gives guidance in personality will avail herself of the very superior approaches to this development which may be obtained through a proper speech education of the child and the teacher.

III. Approaches to Personality Development Through Speech Experiences

Ability to concentrate upon ideas and subject matter reflects introverted tendencies (more specifically called objective introversion);¹ ability to take other persons into consideration for speech and speaking reflects extroverted tendencies (technically called objective extroversion). The most developed speakers appear to have both of these tendencies clearly evident in their speaking activities and social contacts. Likewise, these persons are not impulsive in their speech; they do not speak from the basis of impulses issuing from the lower brain; they utilize sufficient time to permit their knowledge and experience, and hence more "wisdom" and better evaluations, to come into their speaking (technically called delay of reaction).²

To the extent that there is worry, fear, self-consciousness, resistance to undertaking or delivering the speech projects as such, an over-solicitude concerning details, lack of self-confidence in the speaking, submissiveness, and weakness in the critical powers in speech situations, is the speaker's behavior an indication of immature and infantile tendencies (technically called egocentric intro-

¹See L. W. Miller and Elwood Murray, *Personal-Social Adjustment Test for Speech*, Manual, University of Denver Book Store, 1941.

²See "delayed and undelayed reaction" in index of Alfred Korzybski, *Science and Sanity: An Introduction to Non-Aristotelean Systems and General Semantics*, Science Publishing Co., Lancaster, Pa., 1941.

version). To the extent that the speaker is indifferent to details and has an undue liking for leadership and prominence as such, is over-sensitive and dominant, is he also immature and infantile in his speech behavior (technically called egocentric extroversion). Both of these speakers exhibit undue impulsiveness in their speaking, and accordingly have difficulties in their human relationships. Neither makes adequate evaluations even though he frequently has suitable experience and knowledge.

In directing speech experiences, the aim should be to release the personality in line with its potentialities and the inherent patterns of voice and action which the speaker has more or less inhibited or distorted. These inherent patterns of introversion and extroversion can not and should not be changed; but their productive potentialities may be achieved when the acquired egocentricity is reduced and when the speaker becomes more objective. He can then concentrate on the speech content instead of upon himself.

Everything about the speech experience, its assignment, the conditions under which it is prepared, the delivery of the project, the criticism of the project, should be conducted in a manner to help the student face his inefficiencies and obtain control over all aspects of his speech behavior. Any inability to concentrate, any unpleasantness in relation to work on the assignment, any avoidance or resistance which makes for inefficiency, should become matters for solicitude on the part of the student and the teachers until eliminated. For the students concerned, it may be necessary that they think intensely more about themselves temporarily in order that they may be permanently more efficient and able to absorb themselves in their speech content and in their auditors' reactions as the occasion demands.

A speech situation, especially if it involves an audience of several persons whose recognition he desires, becomes a rather critical and crucial occasion in the development of the child. In speaking before the group,

his tendencies toward objectivity, security, and stability will be enhanced if he feels that he has been a success and has received the approval of the group, and if not too much is made of the success. To the extent that the child feels that he was not a success will his tendencies toward insecurity, anxiety, and instability be enhanced, and his courage decreased. Where too much is made of the child's success, his ability to evaluate himself and his abilities will be hindered. In both of these cases, the results tend to keep the children concerned infantile and egocentric.³

Thus practically all speech activities or assignments, simple reports, conversations, oral readings, dramas, debates, panels, dialogues, legislative assemblies, interviews, committee meetings, telephone calls, original radio broadcasting programs, etc., become occasions for the achievement of an objective attitude, the improvement of evaluations, the enhancement of voice skills, the improvement of ability in human relationships.

IV. Practical Methods for Speech-

Personality Development

The training should begin at those points where there is timidity, over-aggressiveness, poor vocal or bodily control, and poor evaluations in the conversational and speech contacts of the child. Wherever the child is under a strain, or wherever the speech media are making barriers and disintegration in the child's social environment instead of co-operation and warmth, are the places where speech functioning should be made the special focus of attention.

At the high-school and college levels, the students can be taught to analyze their disintegrative speech and remarks, including sarcastic tones of voice, etc., in all of their social contacts. They may carry diaries or autobiographies which are rather detailed as respects the "integrative-

³For details in administration of speech projects for personality development, see Elwood Murray, *The Speech Personality*, Chapters IV-VIII, J. B. Lippincott, 1939. Also, see *Supplement to the Speech Personality*, University of Denver Book Store, 1941.

ness" of their speech behavior. At the end of a period of two weeks or a month, the students may summarize the results of their "human relations analyses" before the class. These summaries give the pupil an opportunity to view his behavior in a perspective and in an objective fashion. To be able to speak of one's own deficiencies before a class in a good-humored manner is an excellent test of personality, and once accomplished successfully, is in itself an indication of personal integration.

As administered at the University of Denver, this assignment covers intensively all of the speech behavior of the student for three days plus whatever time is necessary to eliminate the egocentric behavior. For the ordinary social contacts, about three weeks are required for most college freshmen to obtain this control. A few students, however, require much longer. The disintegrative remarks are recorded as to time, place, and circumstances.⁴ The summary which the student presents includes a treatment of what he has found out about whatever tendencies he may have to speak impulsively, with effects which he afterward regrets, or to be inhibited and "mentally" blocked in important situations, or to make slips of grammar and vocabulary which bring strains into the situation. Also, the summary includes whatever tendencies he may have to observe inaccurately, to exaggerate, and to permit inadequate evaluations to occur in his speech. As a test of his objectivity, the student is invited, but not required, to explain to the class the chief influences in his background which have tended to keep him immature and which account for the uncontrolled behavior.

Where the chief speech-personality problem is timidity, submissiveness, and weakness of the critical powers (egocentric introversion) in speech situations, the teacher should administer the speech experiences in every way possible to build up the student's basic courage. Public speak-

⁴See *The Speech Personality*, and *Supplement*, op. cit. for full explanation.

ing, debate, discussion and other argumentative activities are valuable here in encouraging the student to be more assertive and in requiring him to think on his feet. Similarly helpful are assignments to parts in plays requiring poise, assertiveness, and dignity. He can often be given important and leading roles which if he can be made to feel are done successfully are great aids to increased confidence. Criticism should be administered with care to increase the courage but at the same time to help the student frankly face his problem.

Where the chief difficulty is over-aggressiveness, indifference to criticism, inability to concentrate but with a tendency to "blah, blah," as with some over-verbalized smart alecks (egocentric-extroversion), the assignments should be to speech projects which will directly require the more desirable behavior if the projects are executed successfully. Oral interpretation of poetry and parts in plays which require meditation and contemplation are helpful. Parts in plays of a subordinate nature, and which require close co-operation with other persons, may help. The assignments should aim to bring out a care for detail and refinement in the student. Sometimes persons with this difficulty require the application of the sharpest criticism and other unpleasant pressures in order to induce them to face their problems and to begin to work on their speech-personality deficiencies seriously.

Very frequently voice problems in speakers are complicated by personality involvements. The conventional speech correction procedures meet resistance and are carried through only half-heartedly and without efficient concentration. Here, as with the other speech-personality difficulties, the basic need is to reduce the egocentricity along with the application of the correction methods. The assignment of poetry especially selected for the voice and enunciation problems, as well as for the personality problem, is especially useful.

Personality improvement blanks have been devised for experiences relating to conversation, impromptu speaking, oral interpretation, dramat-

ics, public speaking, and voice improvement.⁵ If these blanks are conscientiously filled out, the student will be required to face his problem, analyze it, allocate the tensions involved to the circumstances in his history which resulted in the unfavorable conditioning, and gradually obtain conscious control of many unconscious aspects of his speech which are a hindrance.

Where the teacher is prepared to present them, the teaching of certain formulations from general semantics has been found to be exceedingly valuable in helping students achieve speech behavior which reflects proper evaluations and "integrativeness" in social contacts. Space permits only the naming of the chief formulations with which students should be thoroughly familiar if they are to be fully adequate and mature in the more difficult speech situations. These are as follows:

- (1) Relationships of words to facts
- (2) Adequate reactions of the nervous system to words as compared with its reactions to facts.
- (3) The nature of facts and reality as representing a world of events and processes.
- (4) Consciousness of abstracting.
- (5) Elimination of identification and allness reactions.
- (6) Extensional as contrasted with intensional orientations.
- (7) Use of the extensional devices.
- (8) Adequate predicting and evaluating.⁶

It should be added, however, that the effective teaching of these formulations by many of the present generation of teachers, whose training and orientations are largely around static verbalisms instead of in relation to a world of events and change (process-facts), is virtually impossible. The world of words and books of the ordinary teacher and "scholar" is a vastly different world than that

dynamic world of processes in which we actually live, which science has revealed. The mastery of these formulations must go far deeper than words.

Proper evaluation of a situation is not possible without adequate perspectives of the past and present events upon which predictions may be based. Persons who confuse reactions within their own skins with objective reality cannot, of course, make suitable predictions. The chief "reactions within our skins" refer to verbalisms, with their related prejudices, absolutisms, dogmas, doctrines, and superstitions. Persons behave toward verbalisms as if these were within themselves the final and all-inclusive facts. This difficulty is a serious one to the extent that education confine itself largely to the verbal level, as it all too frequently does. This is also accentuated by the tendency of education to split things verbally which in reality cannot be split, such as "body" and "mind," or to split "knowledge" into compartments as to studying and thinking about "psychology," or "economics" as being something entirely separate from "sociology."

A word of warning should be mentioned in regards to what Dr. Karen Horney calls neurotic perfectionism and neurotic competition⁷—matters which should be of especial solicitude in speech education. These conditions are prone to occur wherever persons are working in the creative arts or in situations requiring much refinement and perfection in detail, such as in drama, public speaking, art, music, writing, etc. The "holier-than-thou" attitude, certain attitudes of refined cruelty, undue drive toward perfection, rigidity in adjustments, temperamental outbursts, anxiety because of being surpassed by others, vindictiveness, and boasting, are some of their too prevalent inclinations. Put neurotic perfectionism and neu-

(Continued on page 71)

⁵See appendices in *The Speech Personality*, op. cit.

⁶See S. I. Hayakawa, *Language in Action*, Harcourt Brace, 1941; Wendell Johnson, *Speech and Language Hygiene*, Institute of General Semantics, Chicago, Ill. 1951; Irving Lee, *Language in Human Affairs*, Harpers, 1941. Also, Alfred Korzybski, op. cit.

⁷See Karen Horney, *The Neurotic Personality of Our Time*, Chapters X, XI, W. W. Norton and Co. 1957; and (same author and publisher) *New Ways of Psychoanalysis*, Chapter XIII, 1959.

Is John Steinbeck "Literary"?

Hubert Smith

Mr. Smith, a native of Missouri, is one of the younger members of the English Department of Indiana State Teachers College.

I

To name as an upholder of the best literary standards and traditions in the field of prose fiction a writer so recently arrived upon the literary horizon as is John Steinbeck is to render oneself vulnerable to certain attack by the literarily conservative. This vulnerability is increased in the case of one thus naming Steinbeck by the fact that a part of his great reputation smacks more of notoriety than of fame, that the impression which he has made has, perhaps, been as much the result of the sociological significance of some of his works and of his disregard for the dictional squeamishness of American readers, real or feigned, as of the real literary merits of his writings.

Perhaps it is these very factors, however, which have tended to obscure the truth that on purely literary grounds the writings of Steinbeck represent not only a maintenance of the highest traditional standards in fiction, but that, in some of his works, he has introduced new methods and techniques which will have a far reaching influence in shaping the future of the medium itself. Those literary critics who think that Steinbeck is nothing but a proletarian pamphleteer and propagandist are just as critically blind and unpenetrating as are the members of the Baptist Ladies Aid Society who think he is only a wicked man who writes nasty books.

II

What then are the qualities of excellence, traditional or original, in the writings of Steinbeck? The most obvious of these, one which in its varying manifestations is perhaps both traditional and original, may for

lack of a better term be labeled his authenticity. The inadequacy of the word in conveying a concept of the quality meant has perhaps been increased by the connotations given it through its use by collectors of such a variety of commodities as old furniture, paintings, first editions, and pre-war liquors. Rather than being intended to suggest, however, that what Steinbeck has to offer is something rare and exclusive, the word is meant to emphasize that his writings convey a sense of the authentic for the reason that they are rooted in what is common and universal in life.

While this quality of authenticity is pervasive, indeed permeates all of his works, varied as they are, it is a quality which can, for purpose of analysis and discussion, be considered in its application to individual aspects of his writing. For example, there is present in Steinbeck's characters that which renders them something more than personalized abstractions, something different from manikins to hang incidents and theses upon. These characters are neither the super-protagonists of the extreme romanticist nor the too-studied caricatures of the extreme realist. They are in every instance real people who, like persons in life, besides possessing the characteristics which qualify them as members of broad human groups and classes, are endowed with special and individual attributes which render them unique and sublime as individual human entities. In life no two persons are ever alike. Steinbeck's authenticity to life in his characterizations arises out of his capacity to bring into focus in his characters those attributes which render each a complete and individual personality who is interesting in his own right. This is true when he writes in *Tortilla Flat* of the paisanos of Monterey who, he says, are "good people of laughter and kindness, of honest lusts and direct eyes, of courtesy beyond

politeness."¹ But he makes them more than members of a distinctive group. He makes of Danny, of Pilon, of "Sweets" Ramirez, individuals whose personalities are as unique as a finger print.

And again when in *Of Mice and Men* Steinbeck writes of the drifting rootless ranch hand with his vague longing for a piece of land of his own where he will "belong," he evolves two characters in the persons of George and Lennie who, while they serve splendidly as representatives of a class, are yet men whose complete individuality is no better manifested than in their very great difference from each other. Or once again the Joad family of *The Grapes of Wrath*, while they stand as representatives of the great group of rural dispossessed, victimized by nature and by man alike, as individuals are just as real and just as personal as a member of one's own family.

Another aspect of this pervasive authenticity of Steinbeck's is to be found in the sentiment which is strong in all of his works. Sentiment, based as it is upon human emotional manifestations, is all too often spun too fine into the spiritualities of the aesthete, on the one hand, or overdeveloped into the sentimentalities of the sob sister, on the other. In the hands of Steinbeck, however, human emotions are neither refined nor overdrawn; they are permitted to find their own natural expression. We thus have the completely natural situation in *Of Mice and Men* of big, blundering, simple-witted Lennie tenderly loving mice and puppies but always forgetting about not squeezing them so hard that he kills them. And we have the little, quick-witted, practical-minded George, who serves as guardian for Lennie and holds him in check by dreaming aloud for Lennie to hear:

Guys like us, that work on ranches, are the loneliest guys in the world. They got no family. They don't belong no place. They come to a ranch an' work up a stake and then they go into a town and blow their stake, and the first thing you know they're poundin' their tail on some other

¹In the introduction to the Modern Library edition of *Tortilla Flat*.

ranch. They ain't got nothing to look ahead to . . . With us it ain't like that. We got a future. We got somebody to talk to that gives a damn about us. We don't have to sit in no barroom blowin' in our jack jus' cause we got no place else to go . . . Someday—we're gonna get the jack together and we're gonna have a little house and a couple of acres and a cow and some pigs . . .

But the dreams, of course, never come true and Lennie's pathetic incapacity for coping with life leads him to catastrophe. George has to lose his friend, to whom he has been so loyal; and therein lies real pathos and sentiment.

The account of the progress toward martyrdom of Steinbeck's character, Jim Nolen, Communist labor organizer of *In Dubious Battle*, while it is no less moving than the saints stories which have so long provided materials for literature, is much more psychologically authentic in its sentiment.

Grampa Joad, of *The Grapes of Wrath*, is perhaps manifesting his contrariness as much as he is his loyalty when, at the time his family are on the point of leaving behind them their native Oklahoma and setting out for California, where they hope to find sustenance if not fortune, he refuses to go. The very fact that his motives are thus mixed renders realistic this speech, which, coming from an old man and a farmer, is as authentic in its sentiment as it is in its dialect:

I ain't sayin' for you to stay . . . You go right on along. Me—I'm stayin'. I give her a goin'-over all night mostly. This here's my country. I belong here. An' I don't give a goddam if they's oranges an' grapes crowdin' a fella out of bed even. I ain't a-goin'. This country ain't no good, but it's my country. I'll jus' stay right here where I b'long.

A sentiment which is equally as genuine, though less personal, lies in this description by Steinbeck of those last moments of the Joads, after Grampa has been drugged into unconsciousness by liquor and thrown into the truck which holds their meagre goods and is to hold their numerous family, before they depart in the dawn:

. . . The light was sifting rapidly over the land. And the movement of the family stopped. They stood about, reluctant to make the first active move to go. They were afraid now that the time had come, afraid in the same way Grampa was afraid. They saw the shed take shape against the light. The stars went out, few by few, toward the west. And still the family stood about like dream walkers, their eyes focused panoramically, seeing no detail, but the whole dawn, the whole land, the whole texture of the country at once.

There is, too, a certain epic sentiment in the ending of this account of the trials and sufferings of the family in the cry of the mother of the tribe, Ma Joad, who exclaims: "They ain't gonna wipe us out. Why, we're the people—we go on." But there is truth as well as sentiment in this declaration, and therein lies its force.

Perhaps the most important, certainly the most easily distinguishable, of the aspects of Steinbeck's authenticity lies in the veracity of the details he includes concerning whatever phase of life he is describing. This authenticity grows out of his capacity to observe, to react to what he sees, and to reproduce it through the medium of language. Thus this account of how the boy Jody rises early in the morning and goes to see his new pony in the barn rouses by the sheer authenticity of its details a response of recognition from any one who has ever lived on a farm:

In the grey quiet morning when the land and the brush and the houses and the trees were silver-grey and black like a photograph negative, he stole toward the barn, past the sleeping stone and the sleeping cypress tree. The turkeys roosting in the tree out of the coyotes' reach clucked drowsily. The fields glowed with a grey frost-like light and in the dew the tracks of rabbits and of field mice stood out sharply. The good dogs came stiffly out of their little houses, hackles up and deep growls in their throats. Then they caught Jody's scent and their stiff tails rose up and waved a greeting. . . .

This ability of Steinbeck to render authentic the life of a distinctive group or class through developing minute but significant details has been observed by Harry Thornton

Moore in his critical study of Steinbeck's novels. Speaking of *The Grapes of Wrath*, he says:

. . . The people met on the road, the life of the camps, the struggles of the Joad family: these fragments are unforgettably presented. Steinbeck understands the lives of these people, their thoughts, their behaviour—and he understands their mythology, a queer mixture of half-digested Christianity and profaneness of utterance and elemental farmyard knowledge.²

III

Steinbeck has also evolved and developed to its fullest effectiveness in *The Grapes of Wrath* a sort of panoramic technique, apparently original with him in the form in which he uses it. The method, which is simple, though its execution calls for the greatest skill in writing, is merely that of interlarding the accounts of the very pressing and very particularized problems of the Joad family with passages, usually chapters, which render vivid in the mind of the reader large-scale movements, either of cause or consequence, of which the Joad saga is but a detail localized in time, place, and persons. For example, when Tom Joad arrives home from jail to find his family mysteriously gone from the Oklahoma farm which had been their universe, the reader's curiosity concerning what may have become of the family must await satisfaction until this thematic passage has been read:

The owners of the land came into the land, or more often a spokesman for the owners came. They came in closed cars and they felt the dry earth with their fingers, and sometimes they drove big earth augers into the ground for soil tests. The tenants, from their sun-beaten dooryards, watched uneasily when the closed cars drove into the dooryards and sat in their cars to talk out of the windows. The tenant men stood beside the cars for a while, then squatted on their hams and found sticks with which to mark the dust.

In the open doors the women stood looking out, and behind them the children—corn-headed children, with wide eyes, one bare foot on top of the other bare foot, and the toes working. The women and the children

²*The Novels of John Steinbeck*, Chicago, 1939, p. 65.

watched their men talking to the owner men. They were silent.

And so the passage continues, and the actual situation of the Joads' when we at last come to it, takes on a significance which is tremendously increased when it is recounted against the background of this panoramic passage.

The Joads buy an old Hudson truck to transport them in their new venture, but their purchase of it takes on a meaning far in excess of that it has as an incident in the account of the affairs of a family, for the reader has viewed this panorama:

In the towns, on the edges of the towns, in fields, in vacant lots, the used-car yards, the wrecker's yards, the garages with blazoned signs—Used Cars, Good Used Cars, Cheap transportation, three trailers, '27 Ford, clean. Checked cars, guaranteed cars, Free radio, Car with 100 gallons of gas free, Come in and look, Used Cars, No overhead.

A lot and a house large enough for a desk and a chair and a bluebook. Sheaf of contracts, dog-eared, held with paper clips, and a neat pile of unused contracts. Pen—keep it full, keep it working. A sale's been lost 'cause a pen didn't work.

Those sons-of-bitches over there ain't buying. Every yard gets 'em. They're lookers. Spend all their time looking. Don't want to buy no cars; take up your time. Over there, them two people—no, with the kids. Get 'em in a car. Start 'em at two hundred and work down. They look good for one and a quarter. Get 'em rolling. Get 'em out in a jalopy. Sock it to 'em! They took our time.

Owners with rolled-up sleeves. Salesmen neat, deadly, small intent eyes watching for weakness.

A second device used by Steinbeck, and also brought to its fullest development in *The Grapes of Wrath*, is somewhat related to the one illustrated above, but rather than accomplishing its effect of panoramic and sweeping movements through the method of omniscient but detailed depiction, it uses some tangible object as the embodiment of a great movement. Thus the invasion of Oklahoma by the caterpillar tractors, the "cats," which drove people off their land and demolished their homes and

fences is described both realistically and symbolically:

The man sitting in the iron seat did not look like a man; gloved, goggled, rubber dust mask over nose and mouth, he was a part of the monster, a robot in the seat. The thunder of the cylinders sounded through the country, became one with the air and the earth, so that earth and air muttered in sympathetic vibrations. The driver could not control it—straight across country it went, cutting through a dozen farms and straight back. A twitch at the controls could swerve the cat, but the driver's hands could not twitch because the monster that built the tractor, the monster that sent the tractor out, had somehow got into the driver's hands, into his brain and muscle, had goggled him and muzzled him—goggled his mind, muzzled his speech, goggled his perception, muzzled his protest. He could not see the land as it was, he could not smell the land as it smelled; his feet did not stamp the clods or feel the warmth and growth of the earth.

What Steinbeck's future as a novelist is to be it is foolish to attempt to predict. But his work thus far is sufficient, not only to establish him among those who have carried on in prose fiction in the best literary traditions, but as one who has done much to reshape and develop the medium as well.

A State Public School

(Continued from page 54)

tion would be "each teacher a speech teacher," the fact remains that each teacher is *not* a speech teacher and it is unlikely that such a millennium will ever be reached. Granting the possibility that it might be reached at some distant date, the fact still remains that we have an immediate need. This need is most adequately met by a general public-school speech program. The administrator also recognizes the vital part that a speech defect may have in causing such inhibitions and maladjusted personality as to destroy a pupil's opportunity for social and economic success.

The administrator who is convinced of the educational soundness and practicability of a general speech program can insure its success by doing

several things. First, administrators must be sure that the proper person is supervising this program. The teacher whose speech preparation has been too largely in one specialized field may not have a broad enough viewpoint to supervise such a program as has been outlined. The balanced program of speech preparation, in which the supervisor has the educational viewpoint, is greatly to be desired. Second, the qualifications of a speech supervisor are not entirely in the field of academic preparation and total number of college hours accrued. Just as vital a part of her qualifications must be a knowledge and understanding of children from the elementary level up through the senior high school. It has been the experience of the Missouri speech program that failures in this work, although infrequent, have been more from the lack of this second qualification than from the lack of academic preparation. Third, a qualification of only slightly less importance is that of being able to get along with parents and the community. The speech supervisor, through the natural course of her work, is a public-relations agent. The many contacts with homes, parent-teacher groups, and other organizations, make necessary the best public relations in order to insure a successful program. The administrator, then, must look for all three of these qualifications in employing a supervisor for this program.

After the supervisor has been employed, the administrator should pave the way for active co-operation among the teachers by signifying his wholehearted support of the program. He should ask for co-operation of the teachers at the initial faculty meeting, and should make possible the introduction of the speech supervisor to the parent-teacher groups and other organizations. The administrator should require from the supervisor a detailed outline of the program, including a plan of schedule, the type of material to be used, the objectives of the work, and the goals to be achieved. The administrator should furnish adequate equipment and supplies to expedite the work of the supervisor.

Reading Readiness: Its Determination And Use

David Kopel

Dr. Kopel is Professor of Psychology and Education, Chicago Teachers College. His experience in public school work and his extensive research background assure that any contribution of his will at once carry authority and practicality. His researches have contributed much to determinative etiology of reading disabilities; his clinic experience has contributed useful material and approaches for those working with children possessing reading disabilities. This is a paper presented as a part of the Speech and Reading Institute held during the week of July 14-19, 1941, at Indiana State Teachers College.

To determine reading readiness requires the use of a measuring stick. The kind of measuring stick or evaluation which one will employ depends upon his notion of what he is attempting to measure and predict. The use to which one will put the results of this measurement reflects one's concept of reading and, indeed, of the entire educative process. These general observations about the topic should be obvious to all teachers; that these considerations and an awareness of their significance are absent usually in classroom practice is evident in the indiscriminate selection of readiness tests, in the mechanical grouping of children on the basis of these test results, and in the perpetuation, despite the growing popularity of so-called readiness programs, of what Dewey¹ many years

¹John Dewey, "The Primary Education Fetish," *Forum*, XXV (April 1898), pp. 315-328. This acute and prophetic socio-educational analysis is well worth reading by most teachers today.

XVII (May, 1941), pp. 396-398.

ago called the "primary-education fetish," i.e., an obsession of teachers and parents about the necessity of teaching children to read from the moment they enter first grade—without regard to cost in educational and personality values.

The malpractices of teachers and educators in the field of initial reading instruction can be attributed to the same forces that retard educational advance generally: (1) a lack of significant facts concerning the learning process and child development; (2) unfamiliarity of teachers with the available facts; (3) inadequate facilities and resources—room, time, materials, etc.—in the school and community with which to provide a rich sequence of educative experiences; (4) reluctance of teachers and administrators to modify practices in the direction of demonstrably superior methods;² (5) the general absence among school people of a conscious educational philosophy firmly grounded on sound psychological principles and democratic life values.³

The foregoing formulation oversimplifies the complicated problem of the educational lag, analysis of which would require at least the time that has been allotted for our more immediate task. Although it is true that the schools generally have been dilatory in effecting educational reform, we must not overlook the

²Teachers' "fear of and resistance to change" is discussed in a stimulating article by Dr. James S. Plant, "A Psychiatrist Looks at Teacher Education," *Educational Record*, XXII (April, 1941), pp. 137-148.

³An unusually good source of help to teachers in this regard is available in a recent book: G. W. Hartmann, *Educational Psychology*, Part I (American Book Co., 1941).

equally important fact that many teachers are sensitive to their responsibilities to improve instruction and the quality of living inside (and also outside) the classroom.

Illustrative of the substantial evidence on this score is this Fourth Speech and Reading Institute at Indiana State Teachers College. Similar reading conferences are being held this summer in colleges in nearly every state of the Union.⁴ Thousands of teachers have been attending or participating in the clinics, demonstrations, seminars, lectures, and other activities associated with these meetings. Whether we shall have more such conferences only the gods of war can tell. But already one can discern in a growing and impressive number of schools of all types throughout the land a new, more wholesome, attitude toward reading. This is expressed in many ways. For example, many teachers concede readily today that the child's first reading experiences in school are very important to his adjustment, as well as to his success in, and development of satisfactory attitudes toward, the world of books. Teachers are becoming acutely conscious of their obligation to prevent the appalling amount of academic failure and personality distortion that occurs or has its inception in the first-grade reading program. They are searching eagerly for methods and techniques which will assure the success of their reading instruction. They are willing to "take time out" from the course of study in the first grade to make a comprehensive examination of the many related factors in the child's development which bear upon his readiness to engage in formal reading activities. Modestly they subordinate their judgment to the scores obtained on reading readiness and intelligence tests in appraising readiness.

Since much faith is placed in the administration of tests, let us look somewhat critically at these devices and how they work. Only about a dozen different tests for measuring

⁴Clara Belle Baker, "Changing Emphasis in Summer Reading Conferences," *Childhood Education*,

reading aptitude have been published. Functions generally measured by these instruments include: perceptual abilities to see likenesses and to discriminate differences among words, letters, and forms; extent and quality of vocabulary; comprehension and recall of meaningful material presented orally; visual-auditory association or learning; knowledge of common causal sequences; and general information. Appraisals of most or all of these items are contained in the Metropolitan Readiness Test,⁵ Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Tests,⁶ Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test,⁷ Monroe Reading Aptitude Test,⁸ and the Gates Reading Readiness Test.⁹ Like intelligence tests after which they are modeled in certain respects, some readiness tests may be used as group measures; a few must be administered individually or to small groups. The former are more practical, being more economical of time; the latter are somewhat more reliable.

One of the popular individual tests will be described below in some detail. The Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Tests require for their administration in one form approximately forty-five minutes to an hour. The author recommends the use of the tests at the end of the kindergarten year or at the beginning of the first grade to predict reading attainment in a first-grade reading program.

The tests consist of six sections. In the first, to measure "range of information," the child is asked various questions such as "What is the shape of an orange?" In the second section, ability in "perception of relations" is observed as the child attempts to supply one word to complete a parallel

series; for example, foot—toes . . . hand———? (figners). "Vocabulary opposites" are elicited in the third part of the test; in the fourth, "memory span for ideas" is tested by presenting to the child and having him repeat sentences of varying complexity. The fifth section presents a series of rows of words, each row containing five words. Of these, one word is unlike the others in configuration or in some small detail. The child is asked to differentiate the dissimilar word. A "word-learning test" comprises the last section. Five nonsense words are exposed consecutively on cards and are said to represent English words. For example, the card bearing the word "ilovica" represents "spoon." The child pronounces each English word. After five trials the cards are shuffled again and the child is asked to give the English associated with each nonsense word. Testing continues until he can recall all of the proper associations in two consecutive trials.

The composite score obtained on the six sections of the test are recorded on a profile chart, permitting ready comparison with norms which indicate the degree of probability of successful reading achievement in a typical first-grade curriculum. This suggests one of the serious limitations of the Van Wagenen and of other similar readiness measures: They conceive of reading success in terms of the narrow skills and outcomes displayed after one year's effort in a usually inappropriate reading program. Although the Van Wagenen and some of the other readiness tests have high validity co-efficients (.80 for the Van Wagenen), it must be remembered that these tests are valid as predictive devices only to the extent that the children and their reading program are similar to the population and curriculum, respectively, in which the tests were standardized.

These facts account, in part, for the frequently reported failure of various readiness measures to provide accurate indices to later progress in reading. For individual children the test scores have often proved to be disconcertingly misleading. Moreover, the general correspondence be-

tween the content of most readiness tests with the content of intelligence tests (at the primary levels) has led to the discovery, in several investigations, that a mental test provides a criterion of readiness and of later success practically as good as that derived from the readiness measure.¹⁰ And since the intelligence test has a somewhat wider applicability than the others, teachers and administrators have justifiably objected to the duplication of effort and expense involved in the use of readiness devices. Unfortunately, however, the mental test also is limited in its predictive value. The minimum mental age necessary for success in any given reading program is dependent upon many variables. As Gates¹¹ showed, "The crucial mental age will vary with the materials; the type of teaching; the size of the class; the amount of preceding preparatory work; the thoroughness of examination; the frequency and the treatment of special difficulties, such as visual defects of the pupil; and other factors." Clearly, then, the intelligence test provides but one limited and easily misinterpreted criterion of readiness. Too many teachers still assume that there is some magic guarantee of reading success in a mental age of six years or six years and six months.

The worth of readiness measures has been investigated thoroughly by Frank T. Wilson and his associates.¹²

¹⁰A. Grant, "A Comparison of the Metropolitan Readiness Tests and the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVIII (1937), pp. 118-126, 599-605; A. I. Gates, "Basal Principles in Reading Readiness Testing," *Teachers College Record*, XL (March, 1939), pp. 495-506.

¹¹A. I. Gates, "The Necessary Mental Age for Beginning Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVII (1937), pp. 497-508.

¹²F. T. Wilson, "Correlation of Information with Other Abilities and Traits in Grade I," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVII, (1936), pp. 295-301; F. T. Wilson and C. W. Flemming, "Correlations of Chronological Age, Mental Age, and Intelligence Quotient with Other Abilities and Traits in Grade I," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, L (1937), pp. 323-337.

⁵G. Hildreth and M. A. Griffiths, *Metropolitan Readiness Tests*, (World Book Company, 1939).

⁶M. J. Van Wagenen, *Reading Readiness Tests and Manual*, (Educational Test Bureau, Inc.).

⁷Lee-Clark Reading Test, (Southern California School Book Depository).

⁸M. Monroe, *Reading Aptitude Test*, (Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935).

⁹Gates Reading Readiness Test, (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University).

Their study of reading readiness and reading progress has been conducted over a period of years in the kindergarten and primary grades of Horace Mann School at Columbia University. In their search for data that might contribute to an understanding of individual readiness for, and progress in, reading, the investigators employed different tests, measures, and appraisals, covering scholastic, physical, psychological, and social aspects of the children's development. In the detailed statistical analysis of the data, more than two thousand correlations were computed.

Results, on the whole, were disappointing. Most correlations were low, many of them nearly zero. Even the highest correlations, it should be observed, were inadequate for predicting later reading attainment with any satisfactory degree of accuracy. Moreover, various correlations of the teacher's judgment of children's reading ability after a year of instruction (confirmed by achievement tests) and the reading readiness sub-tests administered at the beginning of the program averaged only .316 (range .10 to .48). The writers therefore assert that the "three so-called reading readiness tests [Metropolitan, Stone and Grover, and Van Wagenen] gave very little evidence of predictive value as to reading progress in grade one."¹³

On the other hand several surprising and significant relationships did emerge: "Certain abilities with letter forms and sounds were strikingly related to reading progress, namely: naming letters [$r = .65$ and $.74$], giving phonic combinations [$r = .84$], giving letter sounds [$r = .70$], and writing words [$r = .64$]. These relationships were much closer than [those of reading progress with] any other measured abilities, including mental age and intelligence quotient."¹⁴

The Wilson study suggests that of the varied traditional measures and

¹³F. T. Wilson and A. Burke, "Reading Readiness in a Progressive School," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVIII (1937), pp. 565-580.

¹⁴*Ibid.*

tests of reading readiness—chronological age, mental age, intelligence quotient, "readiness" test scores, etc.—none is so satisfactory for predicting learning as is a measure of the child's familiarity with words and his ability to name and sound the letters of the alphabet, singly and in combination. "Reading readiness," the investigators conclude, "is in reality reading progress: in particular, progress in the initial stages of learning to read."¹⁵ They assert further that the best prognosis of reading achievement is found in the teacher's judgment, based upon various types of test data and careful, systematic observation of the child during a period of a month or more. This general position is expressed in the recent writing of several of the most prominent workers in the field of reading readiness, including Harrison,¹⁶ Gates,¹⁷ and Monroe.¹⁸ This view has been corroborated experimentally by Sister Mary Nila Steinbach¹⁹ and also by Carr and Michaels who concluded: "When a first-grade teacher wishes, after two months of school, to make prediction of the relative rank of her pupils on a reading test at the end of their first year's work, she may use her judgment—based on her experience in studying the pupils and teaching them over a period of a few weeks

¹⁵F. T. Wilson, C. W. Flemming, A. Burke, and C. G. Garrison, "Reading Progress in Kindergarten and Primary Grades," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVIII (1938), pp. 442-449.

¹⁶M. L. Harrison, *Reading Readiness*, (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939, rev. ed.).

¹⁷A. I. Gates, "An Experimental Evaluation of Reading-Readiness Tests," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIX (March, 1939), pp. 497-508.

¹⁸M. Monroe, "Determining Readiness," *Understanding the Child*, IX (1940), pp. 15-19.

¹⁹Sister Mary Nila Steinbach, "An Experimental Study of Progress in First-Grade Reading," *The Catholic University of America, Educational Research Monographs*, XII (June, 1940), pp. 1-117.

²⁰J. W. Carr, Jr., and M. O. Williams, "Reading Readiness Tests and Grouping of First-Grade Entrants," *Elementary English Review*, XVIII (1941), pp. 133-138.

—rather than test of reading readiness."²⁰

Why have test proved to be so inadequate? The answer is to be found perhaps in the fallacious assumptions held by their makers (and by many teachers) concerning the nature of the reading process. The assumptions which still prevail are clearly described in an article by Wilson and Sartorius.²¹ Chief among these is the notion that the reading process is found only in the interpretation of

connected discourse from books, charts, or perhaps the blackboard or prepared paper materials. All preceding stages or steps are considered to be developing "readiness" for reading. That is, during the period before entering grade one children develop mental and other abilities and interests which get them "ready" to learn to read. The implication is that these "reading readiness" stages are fundamentally different from the steps in learning to read. A sounder and more realistic view is that these two unwisely separated periods of development are actually stages in the same basic process of learning to read.

It would be quite surprising if children, in the present-day reading world in which they grow up, did not show some awareness of the reading activities of older people. Common as well as carefully directed observation shows that children do begin to notice reading activities and situations at a very early age. Opening books, turning pages and gazing at the pages are 'reading' activities at this stage. In a short time words become related to some of the pictures. A two-year-old will not only do all these things, but he will call for a certain picture in a certain book, turn to it and name it with undeviating accuracy. In broad outline this is reading, that is, getting meanings from recorded symbols. Identifying and handling the book and communicating to someone the idea given on a certain page is exactly what an adult frequently does in his reading activities. To belittle such activities as baby-like and in detail different from an adult's reading is to deny baby beginnings, which child psychology today recognizes as lying at

²¹F. T. Wilson and I. C. Sartorius, "Early Progress in Reading: Not Reading Readiness," *Teachers College Record*, XL (1939), pp. 685-694.

the basis of practically every ability and characteristic of adults.

If these simple beginnings were all there was to the pre-school stages in learning to read they might be considered unimportant. But they grow and broaden out into other beginnings more directly leading to reading of continuous discourse. Soon picture books are bought for the young child and elders read the legends accompanying them, tell stories about the pictures, teach rhymes and jingles. In turn the two- and three-year-old prattles these words and stories. Alphabet blocks and alphabet books are introduced and only the parent overwhelmed by teacher authority refrains from naming the letters, pointing them out, turning them right side up, and, as informal occasions arise, "drilling" the child in saying their names correctly. Many babies at this stage learn to hold most books and pictures right side up and to start turning pages from the beginning of the book. The word *book* is naturally learned in connection with these experiences with books, and becomes one of the common words of children's home vocabularies. One study, for example, found it in the second hundred of the commonest words used by pre-school children in their homes. Much learning—a good deal of it below the threshold of recognition or recall—takes place during this long stage of learning the forms and names of the symbols which are the basic and indispensable elements of reading . . .

Children in many homes do not complete the learning of these things before entering school . . . The fact that children in better privileged homes tend to develop abilities to a greater extent than do children from less privileged homes seems to be explainable in the provisions of pre-school reading materials and the help given with these materials by parents and governesses in the privileged homes. Many children from so-called average or inferior homes who have been studied at the pre-school level have shown some of these abilities. Their parents or older brothers and sisters had, in all probability, helped them to make progress in these early stages of reading.

The studies of children in these beginning stages of reading have also shown that there is a close relationship between their abilities with letters and their progress in reading during the first grade, when the latter is measured in terms of either word recognition or paragraph reading.

This relationship is much closer than that between reading and other abilities, such as information, vocabulary, and the like, or even mental ability itself as measured by mental age or intelligence quotient. Careful analysis of the studies indicates that the relationship is explainable in considerable degree by the fact that the children used their abilities with letters as means for reading words and sentences. That is, it was found that those who had the best abilities with letters tended to use letters as helps in reading the idea units expressed by the words. This ability to use letters in reading words is very different from knowing the names and the sounds of letters without knowing how to use them to get the larger word units. It is also probable that the development of this functional ability to use letters as reading cues proceeds very slowly, and is not achieved by drilling children on the alphabet or phonetic combinations. Some children will learn to use letters much more quickly than others, but for many children the progress is and should be slow during pre-school, kindergarten, and even the first two or three school years.

The foregoing analysis by careful students of reading readiness calls attention to many readily confirmed facts about children's first reading experiences which we in schools have strangely forgotten. It is therefore well to emphasize again: In our culture most children take their first steps in reading during infancy. They learn to talk—exercising and giving expression to a biological function in the conventional forms and patterns used by the social group to which they belong. Children appear to learn most efficiently if competent guidance is provided at the time when their explorations of the mysteries of printed forms leads them to seek new skills for their manipulation and understanding. It would appear further that the reading activities of the first grade should serve to extend rather than to interrupt the chain of experiences in the child's life at the time he enters school. And he should learn new skills in reading naturally and functionally as they are needed to carry on and to share his individual and group enterprises.

Equipped with this background,

let us now attempt to evaluate the important developmental measures and estimates which should be considered in determining readiness. These appraisals may be made near the close of the child's kindergarten experience. When children enter school in the first grade a period of one month or more should be devoted to careful observation, testing, and study of each child. These appraisals are made not to determine the child's *readiness for reading*; they are made to ascertain the child's *readiness to engage in the next stage of his individual reading development*. This view of testing readiness broadens the concept and reveals it as a comprehensive *process of evaluation*. This process should characterize teachers' activities whenever they plan instruction—at every level of growth and in every area of experience. However, we must narrow the focus at this point and attend to the specific measures that are useful to teachers of reading.

1. *Intelligence Test Scores.* An intelligence test may be administered to each child to determine his maturity. The M A and I Q should be used simply to aid the teacher in the selection of reading and other activities which are appropriate to the child's present development. Mental test results should not be used to predict achievement. Professor Paul Witty and the writer have shown elsewhere²² the lack of correspondence that prevails between intelligence and achievement test scores. Nor should the results be used to segregate children into reading and "pre-reading" groups, for such a dichotomy, as has been shown above, is false to the facts about the ability of practically all six-year-old children to engage in some reading activities.

Where truly individualized primary programs have not yet been established, where children are still held to arbitrary group standards of reading achievement in grade one—as is true in most schools—failures can be lessened by grouping children

²²Paul Witty and David Kopel, *Reading and the Educative Process*, (Ginn and Company), 1939.

on the basis of mental test results. This necessitates establishing the minimum mental age required for successful participation in the reading program; this minimum will vary with the nature and complexity of the program and the personality of the child. Once determined, this criterion may be used to rate a child's mental age as adequate, meager, or inadequate for the program ahead. Children classified in the latter two categories are those for whom so-called "pre-reading" and "preparatory" programs are provided.

2. Readiness Test Data. A readiness test is a useful instrument insofar as it measures functional abilities which are employed in a given reading program. To fulfill this requirement one recent readiness test predicts success in, and is predicated upon, the use of a specific series of readers—but it is a questionable practice to conceive a reading curriculum merely in terms of a book sequence. *Only when the total readiness test score is very high or very low, respectively, does it assure with any certainty the presence or absence of readiness* for the typical reading program. As a rule, readiness devices are valuable principally in that their sub-tests provide evidence concerning the relative development of several fairly specific abilities related to reading achievement. Inadequacies may be revealed, a knowledge of which may be moderately helpful in guiding children's preparation for reading.

Hildreth,²³ Harrison,²⁴ and Monroe,²⁵ have described many ingenious exercises, games, and activities which promote readiness, i.e., growth in skills which facilitate the reading of books. However, development in some of these skills, such as the ability to see subtle likenesses and discriminate fine differences, depends in large part upon mental maturation, a process of inner growth. Insofar as such skills depend for their development upon educational guidance,

this opportunity appears to be found most abundantly in an informal activity program. Where the primary day is dedicated to rich, happy living rather than to the cultivation of specific skills, the condition is present for the joint achievement of maximum intellectual growth and good reading. In other words, the readiness test provides information about children's development in several rather closely related aspects of growth; usually growth in one area is accompanied more or less by commensurate development in others.

To stimulate growth in any one area, and therefore in all, one needs a well-rounded activity program in which the teacher is free to give special instruction to individual children who display specific deficiencies or immaturities. For example, Johnny, who scores low on the section of a readiness test which measures his familiarity with printed words, should not therefore be given a series of drills in recognizing words. Nor should Mary, who does poorly in a sub-test of general information and relations, be given exercises designed to increase her store of knowledge. Both children will profit most from a rich guided program of environmental exploration and expression in all media. In such a program the teacher who makes judicious use of test scores and is sensitive to children's special needs, will give the first child some special help with words—not any words or those which occur in a graded word-list but words that have emerged from and are related to group and individual experiences that hold genuine significance for the child. She will help the second child by calling her attention whenever possible to casual relationships that transpire in the program.

3. Data on Informal Reading Performance. It is probable, as Gates and Wilson assert, that the best index of readiness for book and chart reading is the child's actual ability to read letters and words in meaningful units and sequences. Hence, the home in the pre-school years, and later the kindergarten and first grade, should

provide situations which stimulate the use of simple reading materials—although systematic reading instruction should be scrupulously avoided until children's readiness has been appraised.

In the first grade, their alphabetic, phonic, and word knowledges should be inventoried, their reversal tendencies noted, their previous reading experiences ascertained (through interviews with parents and with the children themselves), and their attitudes toward reading observed. The teacher should endeavor to learn whether the child expresses any wish to read, and whether this wish is expressed in connection with efforts better to understand and manipulate his environment or whether the wish reflects primarily inappropriate parental or social pressures. She should, moreover, note the child's interest and degree of participation in and ability to profit from the group reading instruction that is provided occasionally. When the child displays limited ability to recognize words, and little interest in reading, the implications for teaching resemble those which have been suggested earlier in the case of Mary.

4. Health and Physical Status. Every child upon entrance to school should have a thorough medical examination, the results should be made known to parents and teacher, and, where indicated, appropriate treatment should be begun. The teacher's attention should be directed particularly to each child's general health, vision, hearing, and handedness. She should observe the vigor with which he engages in play activities, his freedom from colds, his general nutritional status, and the regularity of his school attendance.

The measurement of eyedness is optional, since all kindergarten and first-grade children—irrespective of their eye dominance—should be shown that printed and written material progresses in a left-to-right sequence. Handedness appraisals are necessary to determine the propriety of changing some "left-handed" children before they undertake reading and writing activities. It is essential that binocular vision and hearing be

²³G. Hildreth, *Learning the Three R's*, (Educational Publishers, Inc., 1936).

²⁴M. L. Harrison, *op. cit.*

²⁵M. Monroe, *op. cit.*

adequate before reading is undertaken; otherwise, distortions in learning and faulty perceptual habits are likely to develop. Good health is doubtless essential for optimum learning. A child who is absent frequently will have gaps in his school experiences; if his vitality is low, he will be unable to give the focalized effort necessary for effective achievement. Such as child's primary need is for physical rehabilitation.

In a recent and very significant report there is demonstrated the importance of physical maturity as a constant determinant of reading achievement in childhood. Olson²⁶ has kept genetic or longitudinal growth records for a group of children. Periodic measures have been taken of mental ability, scholastic attainment, and, in the realm of physical growth, of dental, carpal, height, and weight development. The age values attained by the child in these various areas are averaged and yield what is called an "organismic age." "This center of gravity," says the investigator, "grows in a stable manner, while the separate attributes of the organism vary in compensatory ways." The "organismic age," it should be noted, is heavily weighted by physical and physiological items. And in many records Olson reports that children's reading achievement corresponds much more closely to "organismic age" than to mental age. In other words, progress in reading is truly an aspect of the child's total growth. This concept should help teachers achieve a wholesome perspective from which to view the relationship of reading to the child's biological development; it gives promise also of leading educators to re-define their definitions of reading disability, by shifting the emphasis from MA to OA as the criterion of reading expectancy.

5. Data on Emotional and Social Growth. Readiness for reading con-

²⁶W. C. Olson, "Reading as a Function of the Total Growth of the Child," *Reading and Pupil Development*, (The University of Chicago Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 51, October, 1940), pp. 255-257.

tinuous printed discourse depends partially upon maturity in several phases of growth—the "emotional" and "social"—which are reflected in the child's independence of action and his relationships with other people. To engage successfully in this rather intricate type of reading, the child must have learned to work co-operatively with other children, to follow directions, and to listen to as well as participate in group conversation. He must be able to attend rather closely for varying periods of time to the instructional activity. He should be persistent, resourceful, and objective in meeting new and difficult problems; it is important that he engage in learning situations without fears or anxiety and with evident self-confidence and a feeling of security.

Vital contributions to the achievement of these abilities and attitudes are made by stable home environments and by good nursery schools and kindergartens. The child who lacks these advantages and who is socially or emotionally immature must be given time and opportunity in the first grade to grow in these areas before he is confronted with predominantly abstract, intellectual problems. "If he is neither emotionally stable nor adjusted to the school situation, and is lacking in other factors of readiness, the result is usually nervousness, fear, worry, or negative tendencies toward a new and difficult learning situation, such as reading. Irregular habits of perception and brief and fluctuating attention usually follow, with the result that the child is unable to learn to read. When there are no problems of personal adjustment, and when other necessary factors are present, the child should attack the reading process with calmness and pleasure and with happy attitudes toward it."²⁷

6. Language Usage. In the child's language usage the teacher may discern some of the most reliable indications of readiness for reading instruction. Range and quality of vocabulary, complexity and length of sentence structure, clarity of enuncia-

²⁷M. L. Harrison, *Ibid.*

tion and general precision of speech—these language patterns reflect intellectual status, and more pertinently, the ability to manipulate fundamental elements in symbolic expression which facilitates their ready recognition when presented in reading form. Similarly the ability to tell a coherent story suggests that the child will be able, in a reading situation, to retain ideas, to anticipate and to organize meanings. In the development of language patterns, the child's home and pre-school experiences play an important role. Deficiencies in this area should be ascertained by the teacher and corrected in the school by providing a rich social setting which stimulates an abundant and precise use of language.

7. Experiential Background. Perhaps the most inclusive area in the complex interrelated phases of growth with which we have been concerned may be characterized roughly as the child's background of experience. Its significance for speech and mental development has been noted briefly. It encompasses his environmental explorations, his personal relationships, his interests, hobbies, pets, picture books, play activities; these in turn form the basis for much of his mental life—his fancies, wishes, fears, dreams, identifications, ambitions, and understandings.

Of course the value and adequacy of the child's experience is to be estimated not merely in terms of the number of different places he has visited, the variety of play equipment he possesses, etc., but primarily in terms of the *quality* of his experience—the breadth of his understandings and the depth of his meanings. In appraising the experiential background of young children, the use of an interest inventory is a helpful procedure. A special form for the primary grades of the Witty-Kopel Interest Inventory²⁸ is available for this purpose. The questions in the Inventory must be asked informally in private interviews. Information obtained in this manner helps the teacher to judge

²⁸Published by the Northwestern University Psycho-Educational Clinic, Evanston, Illinois.

the adequacy and maturity of the child's play life, the character and extent of his social relationships, and the nature of his home and experiential background. The latter item is particularly important, for, as we have seen, a properly conceived curriculum for the first grade—whether it is called a reading or a reading-readiness program—is designed to refine and extend the reading skills and abilities which, in some degree, practically every child brings with him. The amount and quality of the child's pre-school reading activities thus become important criteria or the bases for curriculum construction and educational guidance in the first grade.

A Career In One High School

(Continued from page 49)

ing the absence of Thomas W. Records, the principal, who was engaged in army work, Mr. Hylton quietly took over the administration of the school, proving a most capable and well-liked director during a difficult time. Upon Mr. Records' return, Mr. Hylton went back once more to his well-loved classroom, taking up his teaching where he had left off. And for the next eighteen years he was busily engaged as instructor of mathematics and dean of boys. During these years he found it possible to put his two sons through Rose Polytechnic Institute and to complete his own Master's degree at Indiana University. In 1938, upon the death of Garfield's principal, Charles Zimmerman, he was called upon once more to become the school's guiding spirit. He has served in this capacity ever since.

He has found multifarious outlets for his intellectual and physical energies. He has taught mathematics to hundreds of young men and women who have gone out from Garfield to prove the worth of his instruction in the schoolrooms of the state, in the business world, and in such engineering schools as Purdue and Rose Polytechnic. His years of service as a classroom teacher have netted the community a rich return in citizens who have been taught to think

straight, to verify their facts, to test their conclusions. He has been tremendously interested in the athletic program of the school, serving efficiently and unselfishly in any capacity in which he was needed, and giving lavishly of both his time and financial backing. As dean of boys, he became acquainted with the problems of the boys who passed through his hands and was instrumental in setting them on the right road through his unfailing kindness and understanding. The principal's office has become a haven to the harassed parents of bewildered youth, who come to him with their problems confident of understanding and words of wisdom. In the midst of all these activities he has shown keen interest in the many educational problems which have come up for faculty consideration.

The career of Edward E. Hylton furnishes an interesting commentary on the worth of the college-trained man to his community. We are prone, it is true, to think that success means traveling far afield and storming the heights of achievement in some distant place; but success is not a matter of having one's name blazoned in electric lights or printed among the records of notables in *Who's Who*. It is not the radius of a man's influence that determines his success, but rather the intensity of his influence within the sphere of his activities.

An Evaluation Of Centralizing

(Continued from page 56)

centralization in regard to the status of transportation leads to much the same conclusion. In 1908 there were 19,109 rural children transported to school; in 1955 there were 193,625. A consideration of the fact that in 1955 not one child lost his life en route to and from school in a state-supervised bus, adds to the conviction that the present tendency is justified. In 1908 there were 1,116 wagon used in transporting rural children; in 1955 there were 6,573 contracted rural routes. The vastness of this phase of administration is not justly

appreciated by the majority of our citizens.

The centralized control of the state over textbooks contains another argument for the justification of state control. The state board of education, in its capacity as the state board of textbook commissioners, has done much to protect the public against a textbook racket. The present system has reduced the cost of textbooks and at the same time improved the quality both in gradation and content.¹³ Malan states:

It becomes very evident when one traces the course of legislation relative to textbooks, that state control has saved the public from the onslaught of textbook companies who sought to sell to a gullible public regardless of the needs of the school children.¹⁴

The financial element involved in upholding a minimum program for every child is supervised by the state. The remarkable progress in this phase of state control seems to be enough justification for the whole tendency. The State Aid Law of 1907 was the beginning of equal educational opportunity in the state. The small levy provided in this law produced \$81,952.70 the first year, but the amount has grown year by year until in 1955 the state distributed \$2,269,454 to the schools in need of relief.¹⁵ Now the entire state tax revenue is transferred to the state aid fund, and in addition, the state guarantees to distribute seven hundred dollars per teaching unit to the schools.

It is only necessary to think back to the darkest days of the depression to get a picture of the implication of this assumption on the part of the state. When other states found it necessary to close the doors of many of their schools because of lack of revenue, Indiana found a way through state control to go ahead. At the same time, in addition to just keeping the schools open, Indiana guaranteed every child that no Indiana school which he may attend would be below a minimum standard. This accomplishment alone justifies

¹³Rawles, *op. cit.*, p. 157.

¹⁴Malan and Robinson, *op. cit.*, p. 266.

¹⁵Cotton, *op. cit.*, p. 359.

state control of public education.

The present project of maintaining the schools meets general approval. Dependence solely upon local revenue leads to inequality of school privileges and retrogression in the poorer communities. Reliance entirely upon the state would invite local indifference and extravagance and would lead to excessive expenditures by the state. Neither plan is satisfactory. A proper combination of state and local support secures all the advantages with none of the evils of the two systems. The present method of financing the schools of Indiana meets this criterion.

In justifying central control, the Division of Inspection deserves its good word. "Through it equal educational opportunities were offered to every child in the state due to the fact that no school could fall below the minimum standard."¹⁶ This alone justifies the creation of this phase of state control.

State control has given a noticeable impulse to the movement toward a term of uniform length. In 1900 the average length of the term in the township schools was 129 days. Now the state is able to assure every child in the state a minimum of 160 days.

Since 1900 central control has made great strides, and has done much for education in Indiana. It can be justified on the grounds that it has accomplished that which local units working alone were unable to do. It is not exceeding the bounds of truth to say that after making due allowances for all other contributing factors, the progress of education in Indiana is due more to its centralized administration than to any other influence.

The Integrative Functions

(Continued from page 60)

rotic competition are both the outgrowth of certain distorted values which result from infantile persons in contact with the excesses of our com-

petitive culture. Teachers who take their standards from the professional stage and Hollywood, or from many of the competitive, declamatory, oratorical, debate and other speech contests and tournaments, may all unconsciously enhance these very tendencies in their students. Other teachers keep the emphasis upon the more fundamental values in the development of their students and utilize debate and drama as vehicles for personality and character development as well as for overt and outward speech improvement.⁸

V. New Potentialities for an Old Subject

If the important functions of speech are its integrative and evaluative functions—in the social and cultural processes, and within the individuals themselves—why should not the teaching of this subject focus on these essentials? Application of this point of view, however, is considerably more difficult than the conventional procedures, and should be attempted only by definitely superior teachers who are pupil-centered and not subject-centered in their work.

The potentialities of speech education will never be achieved by teachers who view speech as mere communication and who put the emphasis on such outward manifestations as the correction of phonetic sounds and utterance, grammar, improvement of vocabulary, logical reasoning and organization of points, handling of proofs, use of stylistic devices, etc., as such. This does not imply that these matters are not important. But to continue the almost exclusive emphasis which these matters now enjoy, separated as these teachers separate them from the person who utters them and the social process for which they should be intended, is superficial and certain to miss the larger more vital possibilities of speech training and speech education.

An advantage of speech education is that through these personality approaches everything which is taught

may be made immediately functional in the life of the student. In dealing with the student's speech, the teacher is dealing with matters of intimate personal significance to him, and accordingly with potentialities of great concern for his development.

The methods as outlined, or similar methods, are in use in the basic speech courses in a number of colleges and universities. Students and faculty generally respond with enthusiasm when they realize the increased significance of speech as these broader approaches to speech imply.

In this paper, an attempt has been made to open up some of the larger possibilities of an old subject. It has been possible to indicate only in the broadest outlines a few of the approaches and methods whereby speech-personality education may help young people and adults to live better today.

ILLUSTRIOUS ALUMNI

FRED A. SHANNON

Graduating from Wiley High School in 1911, Mr. Shannon entered Indiana State and did his major work in history. His chief extracurriculum activity as an undergraduate student was intercollegiate debating. He graduated in the class of 1914.

Mr. Shannon began his teaching career in the junior high school at Brazil, Indiana, and then served as principal of the high school at Reesville. Leaving public schools, he started college teaching at Iowa Wesleyan College, and later served at Iowa State Teachers College, Kansas Agricultural College, and the University of Illinois. He is now Professor of History at Illinois.

Indiana University and the University of Iowa had their influences on this son of Indiana State. He received the Master's degree from Indiana and the Doctorate at Iowa. His dissertation won the Justin Winsor and Pulitzer Prizes. His writings in economic history of the United States have become more widely known, however. At present he is pushing his researches most extensively in agricultural history.

¹⁶McKinley Hagemeyer, *A History of Secondary Education In Indiana, 1920-1950*, (Master's thesis submitted to Indiana State Teachers College, 1956), p. 98.

⁸See Elwood Murray, "Speech Personality and Social Change," *The Journal of Higher Education*, XII, (April, 1941), pp. 185-191.

Around The Reading Table

Germane, Charles E., and Germane, Edith G., *Personnel Work In High School*. Silver Burdett Company, 1940. pp. 599.

This work is an excellent handbook for high-school administrators and personnel directors. All except Part I, which makes up the first seventy-three pages of the book, is devoted to the description of methods of discovering pupil interest, aptitude, and needs (Part II), and the ways of providing student guidance (Part III). These two sections of the book are an extensive and valuable survey of tested methods of carrying on a personnel or guidance program. It should be pointed out that many of the techniques discussed by the authors have been used in schools which do not have a regular guidance staff. It is suggested that such a program, although not the best, can be very effectively handled by the regular teaching staff through the organization of student clinics.

Part I of the book is well worth the time of any high-school teacher or school administrator. Through the use of a case history, the authors demonstrate in a very dramatic style the need for an organized personnel program. Their approach is sociologically and psychologically sound, but one gets the impression that the authors suggest it as a particularistic cure-all for the school's inadequacies.

The same general criticism might be offered with regard to the entire presentation. In spite of fundamental agreement with the thesis of the authors, this reviewer is not able to accept such a "Polyanna" attitude. Much improvement can be made in the understanding and adjustment of high-school pupils, but certainly one can not expect consistently the kind of results that the authors intimate will follow the establishment of a personnel program such as they outline.

—Wilbur Brookover

Indiana State Teachers College

Pancoast, Omar Jr., *Occupational Mobility*. Columbia University Press, 1941. 155 pp.

In this book the author presents what he calls a study in economic theory. He mentions in the preface two major goals which he kept in mind in making his analysis: first, that the analysis should be economically sound, and second, that it be

stated clearly and directly enough to be read and understood by thinkers in general who are not professional students of economics.

The author is of the opinion that the efficiency of a democracy can be increased by a more intelligent and scientific use of human resources. He attempts to show that many aspects of our economic structure are controlled by factors which have heretofore received little or no recognition. The fact that democracy is on trial in the world today as a competitor of the totalitarian nations involves a direct consideration of efficiency in planning and using human resources as well as natural resources. He states that little or no effort has been made to distinguish between central planning and central control.

Considerable attention is given to an evaluation of the more recent practices "tried out" during the depression in an effort to show that there has been a lack of consistent policy and thinking back of our actions. In other words, he attempts to prove that possibly our entire system has "just grown up like Topsy" and that it has not developed as a result of deliberate, scientific, long-range planning in an effort to build soundly to the extent that the interests and well-being of every group would be adequately considered.

The author analyzes the theories and viewpoints of various authorities on the different aspects of our economy and attempts to point out the inconsistencies and weaknesses in their arguments. These inconsistencies, when measured in terms of much trial and error on the part of our government, provide the major basis and justification for this study.

The book has been well written and seems to be void of any political aspects. It is not only informational, but it is interesting as well as challenging. The author appears to be somewhat dogmatic at times, but he does devote his attention faithfully to a rather broad and thorough treatment of a difficult subject and the reader can not help but be convinced that it is after all more than a mere economic theory that has been presented.

—Sylvan A. Yager

Indiana State Teachers College

Mack, Edward C., *Public Schools And British Opinion Since 1860*. Columbia University Press, 1941.

This book is the second half of Mr. Mack's study of the relationship

between the English public school and the ideas and forces which have influenced its growth from 1780 to the present time. There was need for such a study, since most Americans have only a vague idea of the famous English public schools, which, by the way, are not like American public schools, tax-supported, free, and open to all.

Mr. Mack's approach to his subject is a study and a critical analysis of the large body of prose fiction, history, poetry, and pamphlet literature which has been written about Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Winchester, Shrewsbury, Charterhouse, Westminster, and the other public schools. This body of opinion, often of prejudice, Mr. Mack has set against a background of the actual history of the schools in order that his conclusions may be as free from error as possible.

The history of the English public schools in the nineteenth century has been, Mr. Mack says, a continual adjustment to new social forces; all the reforms instituted embodied the wishes of the middle classes, the new rulers of England. They were satisfied that their sons should be like Paul Jones, who was killed in the World War: "His opinions about education and life were those of the typical public-school boy. Character and personality, moral elevation and physical courage were more important than books. Athletics, which, in contrast to the intellect, he considered unselfish, were his chief passion . . . Theoretically he was a socialist and a democrat, which meant that he was a lover of the 'free and liberal British Empire.' Naturally he adored his school."

In the twentieth century the English public schools have made no similar adjustment to the wishes of the laboring classes, in whose hands is the direction of the future of England. These schools, thus, represent only one of the two dominant classes in English life today. Labor has built its own schools and has set itself to destroy the public schools, not to reform them as did the middle classes in the nineteenth century. It is hard to imagine the end of an institution so deeply seated in the traditions of a people as is the English public school; but it may possibly not survive the reorganization of English life which the present war has already begun.

—Sara King Harvey

Indiana State Teachers College

Teachers College Journal

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